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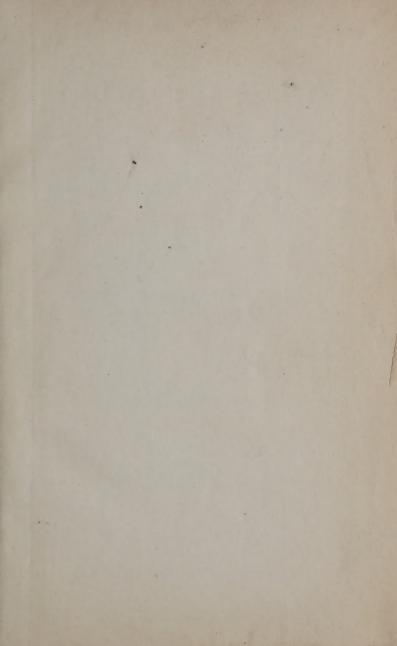
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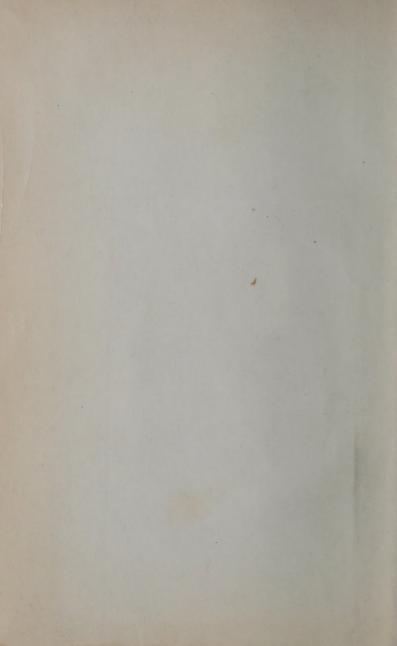
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LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

BY

ALBERT HARKNESS, Ph. D., LL. D., PROFESSOR IN BROWN UNIVERSITY.

REVISED STANDARD EDITION



NEW YORK :: CINCINNATI :: CHICAGO:

A M E R I C A N B O O K C O M P A N Y

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HARK, LAT. GRAM.

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PREFACE

TO THE REVISED EDITION.

The last quarter of a century has revealed many important facts in the development of language. During this period philological research has thrown new light upon Latin forms and inflections, upon the laws of phonetic change, upon the use of cases, moods, and tenses, and upon the origin and history of numerous constructions. The student of Latin grammar is now entitled to the full benefit of the important practical results which these labors in the field of linguistic study have brought within the proper sphere of the school. In securing this advantage, however, care must be taken not to divert the attention of the learner from the one object before him—the attainment of a full and accurate knowledge of the language.

The volume now offered to the public has been prepared in view of these facts. It is the result of a thorough and complete revision of the author's Latin Grammar published in 1864. To a large extent, indeed, it is a new and independent work; yet the paradigms, rules of construction, and in general all parts intended for recitation, have been only slightly changed. The aim of

the work in its present form is threefold.

1. It is designed to present a clear, simple, and convenient outline of Latin grammar for the beginner. It

accordingly contains, in large type, a systematic arrangement of the leading facts and laws of the language, exhibiting not only grammatical forms and constructions, but also those vital principles which underlie, control, and explain them. The laws of construction are put in the form of definite rules, and illustrated by carefully selected examples. To secure convenience of reference, and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these rules, after having been separately discussed, are collected in a body at the close of the Syntax. Topics which require the fullest illustration are first presented in their completeness in general outline, before the separate points are explained in detail. Thus a single page often foreshadows the leading features of an extended discussion, imparting, it is believed, a completeness and vividness to the impression of the learner impossible under any other treatment.

- 2. It is intended to be an adequate and trustworthy grammar for the advanced student. By brevity and conciseness of phraseology, and by compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, an ample collection of the most important grammatical facts, intended for reference, has been compressed within the limits of a convenient manual. Care has been taken to explain and illustrate, with the requisite fullness, all difficult and intricate subjects. The Subjunctive Mood and the Indirect Discourse have received special attention.
- 3. In a series of foot-notes it aims to bring within the reach of the student some of the more important results of recent linguistic research. Brief explanations are given of the working of phonetic laws, of the nature of inflection, of the origin of special idioms, and of various facts in the growth of language. But the distinguishing feature of this part of the work consists in the abundant

references which are made to some of the latest and best authorities upon the numerous linguistic questions naturally suggested by the study of Latin grammar.

An attempt has been made to indicate, as far as practicable, the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant.²

With this brief statement of its design and plan, this volume is now respectfully committed to the hands of classical teachers.

In conclusion, the author is happy to express his grateful acknowledgments to the numerous friends who have favored him with valuable suggestions.

2 See page 4, foot-note 4; also page 9, note 3.

Brown University, Providence, R. I., July, 1881.



¹ See page xv. It is hardly necessary to add that an acquaintance with the authorities here eited is by no means to be regarded as an indispensable qualification for the work of classical instruction. The references are intended especially for those who adopt the historical method in the study of language.



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LATIN GRAMMAR.

- 1. LATIN GRAMMAR treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises four parts:
- I. ORTHOGRAPHY, which treats of the letters and sounds of the language.
- II. Efymology, which treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.
- III. SYNTAX, which treats of the construction of sentences.
 - IV. PROSODY, which treats of quantity and versification.

PART FIRST. ORTHOGRAPHY.

ALPHABET.

2. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English with the omission of w.

¹ The Romans derived their alphabet from the Greek colony at Cumae. In its original form it contained twenty-one letters: A, B, C, D, E, F, H, I, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, X, Z. C was a modification of the Greek gamma, and F of the digamma. Q was the Greek koppa, which early disappeared from the Greek alphabet. C had the sound afterward denoted by g; K, the sound afterward denoted by c. Z early disappeared from the Latin alphabet, but was subsequently restored, though only in foreign words. Throughout the classical period only capital letters were used. On the Alphabet, see Whitney, pp. 55-70; Papillon, pp. 28-48: Wordsworth, pp. 5-10; Roby, I., pp. 21-62; Sievers, pp. 24-108; Corssen, I., pp. 1-346; Kühner, I., pp. 35-49.

1. OPEN VOWEL 4

- 1. C in the fourth century B. c. supplied the place both of C and of G.
- 2. G, introduced in the third century B. c., was formed from C by simply changing the lower part of that letter.
- 3. Even in the classical period the original form C was retained in abbreviations of proper names beginning with G. Thus C stands for $G\bar{a}ius$, Cn, for Gnaeus. See 649.
- 4. J, j, modifications of I, i, introduced in the seventeenth century of our era to distinguish the consonant I, i from the vowel I, i, are rejected by many recent editors, but retained by others.
- 5. The letters u and v, originally designated by the character V, are now used in the best editions, the former as a vowel, the latter as a consonant.
- 6. In classical Latin, k is seldom used, and y and z occur only in foreign words, chiefly in those derived from the Greek.
- 3. Letters are divided according to the position of the vocal organs at the time of utterance into two general classes, vowels and consonants, and these classes are again divided into various subdivisions, as seen in the following

CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

I. VOWELS.

² Originally V, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of U, u and V, v, but it was subsequently modified to U.

³ If the vocal organs are sufficiently open to allow an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound, a vowel is produced, otherwise a consonant; but the least open vowels are scarcely distinguishable from the most open consonants. Thus i, sounded fully according to the ancient pronunciation as ee, is a vowel; but, combined with a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant with the sound of $y : e' \cdot \bar{i} (\bar{u}' - ee, \text{vowel})$, $\bar{e}' - jus$, $\bar{c}us$, consonant, almost identical in sound with $\bar{u}' - ee \cdot us$).

⁴ In pronouncing the open vowel a as in father, the vocal organs are fully open. By gradually contracting them at one point and another we produce in succession the medial vowels, the close vowels, the semivowels, the nasals, the aspirate, the fricatives, and finally the mutes, in pronouncing which the closure of the vocal organs becomes complete.

⁵ E is a medial vowel between the open a and the close i, o a medial vowel between the open a and the close u; i is a palatal vowel, u a labial; y was introduced from the Greek. The vowel scale, here presented in the form of a triangle, may be represented as a line, with a in the middle, with i at the palatal extreme, and with u at the labial extreme:

¹ Throughout the classical period. I, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of I, i and J, j. As practical convenience has, however, already sanctioned the use of i, u, and v, characters unknown to the ancient Romans, may it not also justify the use of J, j in educational works, especially as the Romans themselves attempted to find a suitable modification of I to designate this consonant?

II.			TS.

	©				GUTIURALS.	DENTALS.	LABIALS,
1.	SEMIVOWELS, sonant			٠	\mathbf{i} or $\mathbf{j} = y$		$\mathbf{v} = w$
2.	NASALS, sonant		:		n 1	n ·	m
3.	ASPIRATE, surd .				h		
4.	FRICATIVES, comprising						
	1. Liquids, sonant .					1, r	
	2. Spirants, surd					8	£
5.	MUTES, comprising						
	1. Sonant Mutes .				g	d	b
	2. Surd Mutes				c k a	÷.	m

NOTE 1.—Observe that the consonants are divided.

- I. According to the organs chiefly employed in their production, into
 - 1. Gutturals—throat letters, also called Palatals;
 - 2. Dentals—teeth letters, also called Linguals;
 - 3. Labials-lip letters.
- II. According to the MANNER in which they are uttered, into
 - 1. Sonants, or voiced letters;
 - 2. Surds, or voiceless letters.2

Note 2.—X = cs, and z = ds, are double consonants, formed by the union of a mute with the spirant s.

4. DIPHTHONGS are formed by the union of two vowels in one syllable.

Note.—The most common diphthongs are ae, oe, au, and eu. Ei, oi, and ui are rare.4

ROMAN METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.6

5. Vowels.—The vowel sounds are the following:

- With the sound of n in concord, linger. It occurs before gutturals: congressus, meeting.
- ² The distinction between a *sonant* and a *surd* will be appreciated by observing the difference between the sonant b and its corresponding surd p in such words as bad, pad. B is vocalized, p is not.
- ³ X often represents the union of g and s, but in such cases g is probably first assimilated to c; see 30, 33, 1,
- 4 Proper diphthongs were formed originally by the union of an open or medial vowel, a, e, or o, with a close vowel, i or u, as ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou. An improper diphthong was also formed by the union of the two close vowels, as ui. For the weakening of these original diphthongs, see 23, note.
- b In this country three distinct methods are recognized in the pronunciation of Latin. They are generally known as the *Roman*, the *English*, and the *Continental Methods*. The researches of Corssen and others have revealed laws of phonetic change of great value in tracing the history of Latin words. Accordingly, whatever method of pronunciation may be adopted for actual use in the class-room, the pupil should sooner or later be made familiar with the leading features of the Roman Method, which is at least an approximation to the ancient pronunciation of the language.

	Long.		1 1/2			SHORT.	
ā like ä i	n father:	\bar{a}' - $r\bar{\imath}s$. 1	a	like	α in	Cuba:3	a'-met.
ē " e	" prey:2	\bar{e}' - $d\bar{\imath}$.	. е	46	e "	net:	re'-get.
ī " ï	" machine:	? ī'-rī.	: i	44	i "	cigar:	vi'- det .
ō " ō	" old:	\bar{o}' - $r\bar{a}s$.	0	66	0 "	obey:	mo'-net.
ū " u	" rule:2	\bar{u}' - $n\bar{o}$.	u	66	w "	full:	su'- mus .

- 1. A short vowel in a long syllable is pronounced short: sunt, u as in sum, su'-mus. But see 16, note 2.
- 2. Y, found only in Greek words, is in sound intermediate between the Latin i and u, similar to the French u and the German $\ddot{u}: N\ddot{y}'$ -sa.
- 3. I preceded by an accented a, e, o, or y, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel with the sound of y in yet (7): $A-ch\ddot{a}'-ia$ ($\ddot{A}-k\ddot{a}'-y\ddot{a}$).
- 4. \mathbf{U}° in qu, and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of $i\mathbf{v}$: $qu\bar{\imath}$ (kwē), lin'-gua (lin'- $gw\bar{\imath}$), $su\bar{\alpha}'$ -sit (swä'-sit).
- 6. DIPHTHONGS.—In diphthongs each vowel retains its own sound:

```
ae (for ai) like the English ay (yes): mēn'-sae.<sup>6</sup>
au like ow in how: cau'-sa.
oe (for oi) like oi in coin: foe'-dus.
```

- 1. Ei as in veil, eu with the sounds of e and u combined, and oi = oe, occur in a few words: dein, neu'-ter, proin.
- 7. Consonants. Most of the consonants are pronounced nearly as in English, but the following require special notice:

```
c like k in king: c\bar{e}'-l\bar{e}s (kay-lace), c\bar{\imath}'-v\bar{\imath} (k\bar{e}-w\bar{e}).
g " g " get: re'-gunt, re'-gis, ge'-nus.
```

¹ The Latin vowels marked with the sign ⁻ are long in quantity, i. e., in the duration of the sound (16); those not marked are short in quantity; see 16, note 3.

² Or ē like ā in made, ī like ē in me, and ū like oo in moon.

³ The short vowels can be only imperfectly represented by English equivalents. In theory they have the same sounds as the corresponding long vowels, but occupy only half as much time in utterance.

⁴ Observe the difference between the length or quantity of the vowel and the length or quantity of the syllable. Here the vowel u is short, but the syllable sunt is long; see 16, I. In syllables long irrespective of the length of the vowels contained in them, it is often difficult and sometimes absolutely impossible to determine the natural quantity of the vowels; but it is thought advisable to treat vowels as short in all situations where there are not good reasons for believing them to be long.

⁵ This is sometimes called the parasitic u, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant, and as being dependent upon it. See Papillon, p. 50; Peile, p. 388; Corssen, I.. pp. 69, 70, and 85,

⁶ Combining the sounds of a and i.

When pronounced as monosyllables in poetry (608, III.); otherwise as dissyllables de'-in, pro'-in.

j like y in yet: $j\bar{u}'$ -stum (yoo-stum), ja'-cet.

s " s " son: sa'-cer, so'-ror, A'-si-a.

t " t " time: ti'-mor, $t\bar{o}'$ -tus, $\bar{a}c'$ -ti- \bar{o} .

 \mathbf{v} " w " we: va'-dum, $v\bar{\imath}'$ - $c\bar{\imath}$, vi'-ti-um, 1

Note.—Before s and t. b has the sound of p: urbs, sub'-ter, pronounced urps, sup'-ter.² Ch has the sound of k: cho'-rus (ko'-rus).

- 8. Syllables.—In dividing words into syllables,
- 1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: mb'-re, $per-su\bar{a}'-d\bar{e}$, $m\bar{e}n'-sa\bar{e}$.
- 2. Join to each vowel as many of the consonants which precede it—one or more—as can be conveniently pronounced at the beginning of a word or syllable: ³ pa'-ter, pa'-trēs, ge'-ne-rī, do'-mi-nus, nō'-scit, si'-stis, clau'-stra, mēn'-sa, bel'-lum, tem'-plum, ēmp'-tus. But—
- 3. Compound words must be separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant: ab'-cs, ob- $\bar{\imath}'$ -rc.

ENGLISH METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.4

- 9. Vowels.—Vowels generally have their long or short English sounds.
- 10. Long Sounds.—Vowels have their long English sounds—a as in fate, e in mete, i in pine, o in note, u in tube, y in type—in the following situations:
 - 1. In final syllables ending in a vowel:

Se, si, ser'-vi, ser'-vo, cor'-nu, mi'-sy.

2. In all syllables, before a vowel or diphthong:

De'-us, de-o'-rum, de'-ae, di-e'-i, ni'-hi-lum.6

² On Assimilation in Sound in this and similar cases, see p. 17, foot-note 1.

¹ There is some uncertainty in regard to the sound of v. Corssen gives it at the beginning of a word the sound of the English v, in all other situations the sound of w.

³ By some grammarians any combination of consonants which can begin either a Latin or a Greek word is always joined to the following vowel, as o'-mnis, i'-pse. Roby, on the contrary, thinks that the Romans pronounced with each vowel as many of the following consonants as could be readily combined with it.

⁴ Scholars in different countries generally pronounce Latin substantially as they pronounce their own languages. Accordingly in England and in this country the English Method has in general prevailed, though of late the Roman pronunciation has gained favor in many quarters.

⁵ These sounds in Latin, as in English, are somewhat modified by the consonants which accompany them. Thus, before r, when final, or followed by another consonant, e, i, and u are scarcely distinguishable, while a and o are pronounced as in far, for. Between qu and dr, or rt, a approaches the sound of o: quar'tus, as in quarter.

⁶ In these rules no account is taken of the aspirate h: hence the first i in nihillum is treated as a vowel before another vowel; for the same reason, ch, ph, and th are treated as single mutes; thus th in Athos and Othrys.

3. In penultimate' syllables before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

Pa'-ter, pa'-tres, ho-no'-ris, A'-thos, O'-thrys.

4. In unaccented syllables, not final, before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

Do-lo'-ris, cor'-po-ri, con'-su-lis, a-gric'-o-la.

- 1) A unaccented, except before consonants in final syllables (11, 1), has the sound of a final in America: men'-sa, a-cu'-tus, a-ma'-mus.²
- 2) I and y unaccented, in any syllable except the first and last, generally have the short sound: nob'-i-lis (nob'-e-lis), Am'-y-cus (Am'-e-cus).
- 3) I preceded by an accented a, e, o, or y, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel ³ with the sound of y in yet: A-cla'-ia (A-ka'-ya), Pom-pe'-ius (Pom-pe'-yus), La-to'-ia (La-to'-ya), Har-py'-ia (Har-py'-ya).
- 4) **U** has the short sound before bl, and the other vowels before gl and tl: Pub-lic'-o-la, Ag-la'-o-phon, At'-las,
- 5) $\overline{\mathbf{U}}^4$ in qu, and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of w: qui (kwi), qua; lin'-gua (lin'-gwa), lin'-guis; sua'-de-o (swa'-de-o).
- 6) Compound Words.—When the first part of a compound is entire and ends in a consonant, any vowel before such consonant has generally the short sound: a in ab'-es, e in red'-it, i in in'-it, o in ob'-it, prod'-est. But those final syllables which, as exceptions, have the long sound before a consonant (11, 1), retain that sound in compounds: post'-quam, hos'-ce. E'-ti-am and quo'-ni-am are generally pronounced as simple words.
- 11. Short Sounds.—Vowels have their short English sounds—a as in fat, e in met, i in pin, o in not, u in tub, y in myth—in the following situations:
 - 1. In final syllables ending in a consonant:

A'-mat, a'-met, rex'-it, sol, con'-sul, Te'-thys; except post, es final, and os final in plural cases: res, di'-es, hos, a'gros.

2. In all syllables before x, or any two consonants except a mute followed by a liquid (10, 3 and 4):

Rex'-it, bel'-lum, rex-e'-runt, bel-lo'-rum.

¹ Penultimate, the last syllable but one.

² Some give the same sound to a final in monosyllables: da, qua; while others give it the long sound according to 10, 1.

³ Sometimes written j.

⁴ This is sometimes called the parasitic u, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant and as being dependent upon it. See Papillon, p. 50; Peilo, p. 883; Corssen, I., pp. 69, 70, and 85.

⁵ Etiam is compounded of et and jam; quoniam, of quom = quum, cum, and jam

3. In all accented syllables, not penultimate, before one or more consonants:

Dom'-i-nus, pat'-ri-bus. But-

- 1) **A**, **e**, or **o** before a single consonant (or a mute and a liquid), followed by *e*, *i*, or *y* before another vowel, has the long sound: *a'-ci-es*, *a'-cri-a*, *me'-re-o*, *do'-ce-o*.
- U, in any syllable not final, before a single consonant or a mute and a liquid, except bl, has the long sound: Pu'-ni-cus, sa-lu'-bri-tas.
 - 3) Compounds; see 10, 6).
- 12. Diphthongs.—Diphthongs are pronounced as follows:

Ae like e: Cae'-sar, Daed'-a-lus.¹ | Au as in author: au'-rum. Oe like e: Oe'-ta, Oed'-i-pus.¹ | Eu as in neuter: neu'-ter.

- 1. Ei and oi are seldom diphthongs, but when so used they are pronounced as in height, coin: hei, proin; see Synaeresis, 608, III.
 - 2. Ui, as a diphthong with the long sound of i, occurs in cui, hui, huic.
- 13. Consonants.—The consonants are pronounced in general as in English. Thus—
- I. C and G are soft (like s and j) before e, i, y, ae, and oe, and hard in other situations: ce'-do (se'-do), ci'-vis, Cy'-rus, cae'-do, coe'-pi, a'-ge (a'-je), a'-gi; ca'-do (ka'-do), co'-go, cum, Ga'-des. But
 - 1. C has the sound of sh-
- 1) Before i preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel: so'-ci-us (so'-she-us);
- 2) Before eu and yo preceded by an accented syllable: ca-du'-ce-us (ca-du'-she-us), Sic'-y-on (Sish'-y-on).
 - 2. Ch is hard like k: cho'-rus (ko'-rus), Chi'-os (Ki'-os).
 - 3. G has the soft sound before g soft: ag'-ger.
- II. S, T, and X are generally pronounced as in the English words son, time, expect: sa'-cer, ti'-mor, rex'-i (rek'-si). But—
- 1. S, T, and X are aspirated before i preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel—s and t taking the sound of sh, and x that of ksh: Al'-si-um (Al'-she-um), an'-ti-um (ar'-she-um), anx'-i-us (ank'-she-us). But
- 1) T loses the aspirate—(1) after s, t, or x: Os'-ti-a, At'-ti-us, mix'-ti-o; (2) in old infinitives in ier: flec'-ti-er; (3) generally in proper names in tion (tyon): Phi-lis'-ti-on, Am-phic'-ty-on.

¹ The diphthong has the long sound in Cae'-sar and Oe'-ta, according to 10, 3, but the short sound in Daed'-a-lus (Ded'-a-lus) and Oed'-i-pus (Ed'-i-pus), according to 11, 3, as e would be thus pronounced in the same situations.

- 2. S is pronounced like z-
- At the end of a word, after e, ae, au, b, m, n, r: spes, praes, laus, urbs, hi'-ems, mons, pars;
- 2) In a few words after the analogy of the corresponding English words: Cae'-sar, Caesar; cau'-sa, cause; mu'-sa, muse; mi'-ser, miser, miserable, etc.
 - 3. X at the beginning of a word has the sound of z: Xan'-thus.

14. Syllables.—In dividing words into syllables—

- 1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: mo'-re, per-sua'-de, men'-sae.
- 2. Distribute the consonants so as to give the proper sound to each vowel and diphthong, as determined by previous rules (10-12): pa'-ter, pa'-tres, a-gro'-rum, au-di'-vi; gen'-e-ri, dom'-i-nus; bel'-lum, pat'-ri-bus; emp'-tus, tem'-plum; rez'-i, anx'-i-us; post'-quam, hos'-ce.

CONTINENTAL METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.2

- 15. For the Continental Method, as adopted in this country, take—
 - 1. The Roman pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs; see 5 and 6.
 - 2. The English pronunciation of the consonants; 3 see 13.
 - 3. The Roman division of words into syllables; see 8.

QUANTITY.

- 16. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common.
 - I. Long.—A syllable is long in quantity—
 - 1. If it contains a diphthong or a long vowel: haec, res.

Observe that compound words are separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant (10, 4, 6), as post'-quam; that in other cases, after a vowel with a long sound, consonants are joined to the following syllable, as in the first four examples, pa'-ter, etc., and that, after a vowel with a short sound, a single consonant is joined to such vowel, as in gen'-e-ri and dom'-i-nus; that two consonants are separated, as in bel'-lum, etc.; that of three or four consonants, the last, or, if a mute and a liquid, the last two, are joined to the following syllable, as in emp'-lus, etc., but that the double consonant a is joined to the preceding vowel, as in rea'-i, una'-i-us.

² Strictly speaking, there is no Continental Method, as every nation on the Continent of Europe has its own method.

³ Though the pronunciation of the consonants varies somewhat in different institutions.

⁴ Common—i. e., sometimes long and sometimes short. For rules of quantity see Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

⁵ See note 3 below.

- 2. If its vowel is followed by x or z, or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid: dux, $r\bar{e}x$, sunt.
- II. Short.—A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate $h: di'-\bar{e}s$, vi'-ae, ni'-hil.
- III. Common.—A syllable is common, if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: a'- $gr\bar{\imath}$.

Note 1.—Vowels are also in quantity either long, short, or common; but the quantity of the vowel does not always coincide with the quantity of the syllable.³

Note 2.—Vowels are long before ns, nf, gn, gm, and generally before $j: c\bar{c}n'-sul$, $\bar{i}n-f\dot{e}'-l\bar{i}x$, $r\dot{e}g'-num$, $s\dot{e}g-men'-tum$, $h\bar{u}'-jus$.

Note 3.—The signs -, * are used to mark the quantity of vowels, the first denoting that the vowel over which it is placed is long, the second that it is common, i. e., sometimes long and sometimes short: a-mā'-bō. All vowels not marked are to be treated as short.

Note 4.—Diphthongs are always long.

ACCENTUATION.

17. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first: mēn'-sa.

Note.-Monosyllables are also accented.

18. Words of more than two syllables are accented on

¹ That is, in the order here given, with the mute before the liquid; if the liquid precedes, the syllable is long.

² Observe that the vowel in such syllables may be either long or short. Thus it is long in $r\tilde{e}x$, but short in dux and sunt.

³ Thus in long syllables the vowels may be either long or short, as in rex, dux, sunt; see foot-note 4, p. 4. But in short syllables the vowels are also short.

⁴ See Schmitz, pp. 3-33, also p. 56; Kühner, I., p. 137; also H. A. J. Munro's pamphlet on the Pronunciation of Latin, pp. 24-26.

⁵ See p. 4, foot-note 4. In many works short vowels are marked with the sign ": regs.

With the ancient Romans accent probably related not to force or stress of voice, as with us, but to musical pitch. It was also distinguished as acute or circumflex. Thus all monosyllables and all words in which the vowel of the penult is long and the final syllable short were said to have the circumflex accent, while all other accented words were said to have the acute. The distinction is of no practical value in pronunciation. On the general subject of Accent, see Ellis, pp. 8-10; Roby, I., pp. 98-100; Kühner, I., p. 148; Corssen, II., pp. 806-808.

the *Penult*, if that is long in quantity, otherwise on the *Antepenult*: ho-nō'-ris, cōn'-su-lis.

- 1. Certain words which have lost a syllable retain the accent of the full form. Thus—
- Genitives in \(\tilde{\tilde{t}}\) for \(i\tilde{t}\) and vocatives in \(\tilde{\tilde{t}}\) for \(i\tilde{t}\) in-ge'-n\(\tilde{t}\) for \(i\tilde{t}\).
 Mer-cu'-r\(\tilde{t}\) for \(Mer-cu'-ri-e\).
- 2) Certain words which have lost a final e: il-līe' for il-lī'-ce, il-lāe' for t'-lā'-ce, is-tīe' for is-tī'-ce, etc.; bo-nān' for bo-nā'-ne, il-lān' for il-lā'-ne, tan-tōn' for tan-tō'-ne, au-dīn' for au-dīs'-ne, ē-dūe' for ē-dū'-ce.³

Note 1.—Prepositions standing before their cases are treated as *Proclitics*—i. e., are so closely united in pronunciation with the following word as to have no accent of their own: sub $v\bar{v}'$ -di-ce, in-ter $v\bar{e}'$ - $q\bar{e}s$.

Note 2.—Penults common in quantity take the accent when used as long.

- 2. Compounds are accented like simple words; but-
- 1) The enclitics, que, ve, ne, ce, met, etc., throw back their accents upon the last syllable of the word to which they are appended: ho'-mi-ne'-que,4 mēn-sa'-que,5 e-go'-met.
- 2) Fació, compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: ca-!e-fa'-cit.4
- 3. A secondary or subordinate accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent—on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: $mo'-nu-\bar{e}'-runt$, $mo'-nu-e-r\bar{a}'-mus$, \bar{o} $\bar{i}n$ -stau'- $r\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{e}'$ -runt.

Note.—A few long words admit two secondary or subordinate accents: ho'- $n\bar{o}$ -rif'-i-cen-tis'-si-mus, e

PHONETIC CHANGES.

19. Latin words have undergone important changes in accordance with phonetic laws.

¹ The penult is the last syllable but one; the antepenult, the last but two.

² Thus the quantity of the *syllable*, not of the *vowel*, determines the place of the accent: *regen'-tis*, accented on the penult, because that *syllable* is *long*, though its *rowel* is *short*; see 16, I., 2.

³ According to Priscian, certain contracted words, as ves-trūs' for ves-trū'-tis, or with the circumflex accent, ves-trūs for ves-trū-tis, Sam-nīs for Sam-nī-tis, also retained the accent of the full form; but it is not deemed advisable to multiply exceptions in a school grammar. See Priscian, IV., 22.

⁴ By the English method, hom'-i-ne'-que, cal'-e-fa'-cit.

⁵ A word accented upon the penult thus loses its own accent before an enclitic: $m\bar{e}n'$ -sa, $m\bar{e}n$ -sa'-que.

⁶ By the English method, $mon'-u-\bar{e}'-runt$, $mon'-u-e-r\bar{u}'-mus$, $hon'-\bar{o}-rif'-i-cen-tis'$ si-mus.

⁷ In the history of the ancient languages of the Indo-European family, to which the Latin, Greek, and English alike belong, the general direction of phonetic change has been from the extremes of the alphabetic scale—i. e., from the open a at one extreme and

I. CHANGES IN VOWELS.

20. Vowels are often lengthened:

1. In compensation for the dropping of consonants:

Servoms, servos, slaves; rēgems, rēgēs, kings; posnó, pônó, I place; pagla, pāla, a spade.

2. In the inflection of verbs:

Legő, lèg \tilde{i} , l' I read, I have read ; edő, ēdî, I eat, I have eaten ; fugiő, fügī, I flee, I have fled.

Note 1.—Sometimes vowels are changed, as well as lengthened: $ag\check{o}$, $\check{e}g\imath$, I drive, I have driven; $faci\check{o}$, $f\check{e}c\check{\imath}$, I make, I have made; see 255, II.

Note 2.—Different forms from the same stem or root sometimes show a variable vowel: ducis, dūcis, of a leader, you lead; regis, rēgis, you rule, of a king; tegō, toga, I cover, a covering, the toga ³ See also 22, 1.

21. Vowels are often shortened: 4

1. Regularly in final syllables before m and t:

Erām, eram, ⁵ I was; moneām, moneam, let me advise; audiām, audiam, let me hear; erāt, erat, he was; amāt, amat, he loves; monēt, monet, he advises; sīt, sīt, may he be; audīt, audīt, he hears.

- 2. Often in other final syllables. Thus-
- 1) Final \bar{a}^6 is shortened (1) in the Plural of Neuter nouns and adjectives, and (2) in the Nominative and Vocative Singular of Feminine nouns and adjectives of the first declension:

from the close mutes at the other—toward the middle of the scale, where the vowels and consonants meet; see 3. Accordingly, in Latin words we shall not unfrequently find e or o, or even i or u, occupying the place of a primitive a; and we shall sometimes find a liquid or a fricative occupying the place of a primitive mute. See Whitney, p. 68; Papillon, p. 49; Peile, pp. 199 and 312.

O short in servoms is lengthened in servom to compensate for the loss of m, and a short in pagla is lengthened in $p\bar{a}la$ to compensate for the loss of g.

² The short vowel of the present tense is here lengthened in the perfect; see 255, II. ³ In ducis, ducis, and in regis, rēgis, the variation is simply in the quantity of the vowel, but in tegö, toga, it affects the vowel itself, appearing as e in tegö and o in toga. Sometimes a single vowel appears in one form while a diphthong appears in another flats, faith, foedus, treaty.

4 See Corssen, II., p. 436 seq.

⁵ In all these examples, the form with the long vowel in the final syllable is the earlier form, and, in general, is found only in inscriptions and in the early poets, as Plautus, Ennius, etc.; while the form with the short vowel belongs to the classical period.

6 Corssen regards numerals in -gintā, as trā-gintā, quadrā-gintā, etc., as Plural Neuters, and ā as the original ending. He recognizes also the Neuter Plural of the pronoun with ā in ant-eā, post-eā, inter-eā, praeter-eā, ante-hā-c, praeter-hā-c. See Corssen, II., p. 455 For a different explanation, see 304, IV., N. 2.

⁷ In masculine nouns of the first declension a final was short in the Nominative even in early Latin: scriba, a scribe. But most stems in a weakened a to a, and thus passed into the second declension.

Templā, templa, temples; generā, genera, kinds; graviā, gravia, heavy; mūsā, mūsa, muse; bonā, bona, good.

2) In $\bar{a}r$, $\bar{o}r$, and $\bar{a}l$ final, \bar{a} and \bar{o} are regularly shortened:

Regār, regar, let me be ruled; audiār, audiar, let me be heard; audiōr, audior, I am heard; honōr, honor, honor; ōrātōr, ōrātor, orator; moneōr, moneor, I am advised; animāle, animāl (27), animal, an animal.

3) Final ē, ī, and ō are sometimes shortened:

Benë, bene, well; $n\bar{u}b\bar{e}$, $n\bar{u}be$, with a cloud; $nis\bar{i}$, $nis\bar{i}$, unless; $ib\bar{i}$, $ib\bar{t}$, there; $le\bar{o}$, $le\bar{o}$, a lion; $eg\bar{o}$, $eg\bar{o}$, I.

22. Vowels are often weakened, i. e., are often changed to weaker vowels.

The order of the vowels, from the strongest to the weakest, is as follows:

Note.—The change from a through o to u is usually arrested at u, while a is often changed directly through e to i without passing through o or u.

1. Vowels are often weakened in consequence of the lengthening of words by inflection, composition, etc.:

Carmen, a carmenis, carminis, a song, of a song; frūctus, frūctubus, frūctibus, fruit, with fruits; faciŏ, cōn-faciŏ, cōn-ficiŏ, I make, I accomplish; factus, īn-factus, īn-fectus, made, not made; damnŏ, con-damnŏ, condemnŏ, I doom, I condemn; teneŏ, con-teneŏ, con-tineŏ, I hold, I contain; cadŏ, ca-cad-ī, ce-cid-ī, I fall, I have fallen; tuba, tuba-cen, tubi-cen, a flute, a flute-player.

³ That is, the open a is changed either to the close u through the medial o, as seen on the right side of the following vowel-triangle, or to the close i through the medial o, as seen on the left side:

Open vowel					a
Medial vowels	.•			· · · · · · · · · · ·	0
Cloše vowels				i	2

⁴ The syllable men was originally man. The original a has been weakened to e in carmen and to i in carmin-is.

¹ See Corssen, II., pp. 1-436. The process by which vowels are shortened (21), weakened, or dropped (27), and by which diphthongs are weakened to single vowels, and consonants assimilated, or otherwise changed, is generally known as Phonetic Decay. It may result from indistinct articulation, or from an effort to secure ease of utterance. For a difficult sound, or combination of sounds, it substitutes one which requires less physical effort.

 $^{^2}$ But $u,\,e,\,{\rm and}\,\,i$ differ so slightly in strength that they appear at times to be simply interchanged.

2. Vowels are often weakened without any such special cause: 1

Puerom, puerum, a boy; fīlios, fīlius, son; sont, sunt, they are; regont, regunt, they rule; decumus, decimus, tenth; māxumus, māximus, greatest; lēgitumus, lēgitimus, lawful; aestumō, aestimō, I estimate.

- 23. Two successive vowels are sometimes contracted:
- 1. Into a diphthong: mēnsā-ī, mēnsai, mēnsae, tables; see 4.
- 2. More frequently into a LONG VOWEL. In this case the second vowel generally disappears. Thus e and i often disappear after a, e, and o:

Amāverat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved; amāvisse, amaisse, amāsse, to have loved; flēvērunt, fleērunt, flērunt, they have wept; nōvisse, noisse, nōsse, to know; servoī, servoī, for the slave.

NOTE.—The proper diphthongs of early Latin were changed or weakoned as follows:

- ai 2 generally into ae; sometimes into ē or ī.
- oi generally into oe; sometimes into ū or ī.
- ei generally into I; sometimes unchanged.
- au sometimes into ō or ū; generally unchanged.
- eu generally into ū; rarely unchanged.
- ou regularly into ū.

Aidīlis, aedīlis, an aedile; Rōmai, Rōmae, at Rome; amaimus, amēmus, let us love; in-caedit, in-cīdit, he cuts into; mēnsais, mēnsīs, with tables; foidus, foedus, treaty; coira, coera, cūra, care; loidos, loedus, lūdus,³ play; puerois, puerīs, for the boys; ceivis, cīvis, citizen; lautus, lōtus,⁴ elegant; ex-claudō, ex-clūdō, I shut out; doucit, dūcit, he leads; jous, jūs,⁵ right.

24. Vowels are sometimes changed through the influence of the consonants which follow them. Thus—

¹ That is, by the ordinary process of phonetic decay, a process which in many words has changed an original a of the parent language to e or o in Latin, and in some words to i or u. Corssen cites upward of four hundred Latin words in which he supposes a primitive a to have been weakened to o, e, or i. Even the long vowels are sometimes weakened. Compare the following forms, in which the Sanskrit retains the vowel of the parent language.

SANSKRIT.	LATIN.	ENGLISH.	SANSKRIT.	LATIN.	English.
sapta,	septem,	seven.	padas,	pedēs,	feet.
nava,	novem,	nine.	navas,	novus,	new.
daça,	decem,	ten.	vāk,	võx,	voice.
mātā,	mäter,	mother.	vācas,	võcis,	of a voice
sadas,	sēdēs,	seat.	vācam,	vöcem,	voice.

² The forms ai, oi, ei, au, eu, and ou are all found in early Latin, as in inscriptions; but in the classical period ai had been already changed to ae, oi to oe, and ou to \vec{u} .

³ Loidov, the earliest form, became loedus by weakening of to oe, and o to u (22, 2); then loedus became $l\bar{u}dus$ by weakening oe to \bar{u} .

⁴ Lautus, the earlier, is also the more approved form.

⁵ As eu and ou were both weakened to \overline{a} , it is not easy to give trustworthy examples of the weakening of eu to \overline{a} .

1. \mathbf{E} is the favorite vowel before r, x, or two or more consonants:

Cinisis, cineris (31), of ashes; jūdix, jūdex, judge; mīlitis, mīlets, mīles, of a soldier, a soldier.

Note.—E final is also a favorite vowel: serve, serve, O slave; monēris, monēri, monēre, you are advised; mari, mare, sea.

2. I is the favorite vowel before n, s, and t:

Homonis, hominis, of a man; pulver or pulvis, dust; salūtes, salūtes, ot safety; vērotās, vēritās, truth; genetor, genitor, father.

3. **U** is the favorite vowel before l and m, especially when followed by another consonant:

Epistola, epistula, letter; volt, vult, he wishes; facilitās, facilitās (27), facultās, faculty; monēmentum, monumentum, monument; colomna, columna, column.

- 25. Assimilation.—A vowel is often assimilated by a following vowel. Thus—
- 1. A vowel before another vowel is often partially sassimilated. I is thus changed to e before a, o, or u : ia, ea, this; $i\delta$, $e\delta$, I go; iunt, eunt, they go; iadem, eadem, same; $d\bar{v}vus$, $d\bar{v}us$ (36, 4), deus, god.

Note.—When the first vowel is thus adapted to the second, the assimilation is said to be regressive, but sometimes the second vowel is adapted to the first, and then the assimilation is progressive. Thus the ending $i\bar{a}$ (21, 2), instead of becoming ea as above, may become $i\bar{e}$: $luxuri\bar{a}$ (perhaps for $luxuri\bar{a}s$), $luxuri\bar{e}s$, luxury; $m\bar{a}teri\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}teri\bar{e}s$, material.

- 2. A vowel may be completely assimilated by the vowel of the following syllable from which it is separated by a consonant. Thus—
- 1) E is assimilated to i: mehī, mihī, for me; tebĭ, tibĭ, for you; sebĭ, sibĭ, for himself; nehil, nihil, nothing.
- 2) U is assimilated to i: consulium, consilium, counsel; exsulium, exsilium, exile.
- 3) Other vowels are sometimes assimilated; o to e: bonē, benē, benē (21, 2), well; e to u: tequrium, tuqurium, hut; ē to ō: sēcors, sōcors, stupid.
 - 26. Dissimilation.—A vowel is often changed by dissimilation,

¹ Cinisis, from cinis, becomes cineris by changing s to r between two vowels, making ciniris (31, \tilde{i}), and by then changing i to e before r.

² Observe that the vowel which appears as i in mīliis before t, takes the form of c in mīlets before ts, as also in mīles for mīlets.

³ Monēris becomes monēre by dropping s (36, 5), and changing final i to e.

⁴ Observe that the form in r has e, while that in s has i.

⁶ That is, it is made like it, adapted to it, but does not become identical with it. Thus i before a may be changed to e, but not to a.

⁶ Thus from nouns in $i\bar{a}$ of the first declension were developed nearly all nouns in $i\bar{c}s$ of the fifth.

i. c., by being made unlike the following vowel: $i\bar{\imath}$, $e\bar{\imath}$, these; $i\bar{\imath}s$, $e\bar{\imath}s$, for these.

Note.—The combination ii is sometimes avoided by the use of e in place of the second $i: piet\bar{as}$ instead of $piit\bar{as}$, piety; $societ\bar{as}$, society; $variet\bar{as}$, variety.

27. Vowels are often dropped in the middle or at the end of words, sometimes even at the beginning:

Tempulum, templum, temple; vinculum, vinclum, band; benigenus, benīgenus, benīgenus, benigenant; amaō, amō, I love; temploa, templa, temples; animāle, animal, an animal; sī-ne, sīn, if not; dīce, dīc, say; esum, sum, I am; esumus, sumus, we are.

Note.—After a word ending in a vowel or in m, est, he is, often drops the initial e, and becomes attached to the preceding word: $r\bar{e}s$ optuma est, $r\bar{e}s$ optumast, the thing is best; optumum est, optumumst, it is best; don \bar{e} est, dom \bar{e} st, he is at home. In the same way es thou art, is sometimes attached to the preceding word, when that word ends in a vowel: hom \bar{e} es, hom \bar{e} s, you are a man. For the loss of a final s from the preceding word, see 36, 5, 1), note.

II. INTERCHANGE OF VOWELS AND CONSONANTS.

28. The vowel i and the consonant i—also written j—are sometimes interchanged:

Altior, higher; māior or mājor, greater; ipsius, of himself; ēius or ējus, of him.

29. The vowel u and the consonant u—generally written v—are often interchanged:

Col-uī, I have cultivated; rocā-vī, I have called; nāvita, nāvta, nauta, sailor; volvtus, volūtus, rolled; lavtus, lautus or lōtus, washed; movtus, moutus, mōtus, e moved.

Note.—The Liquids and Nasals are sometimes so fully vocalized as to develop vowels

¹ The combination uu was also avoided in early Latin either by retaining the second vowel in the form of o, instead of weakening it to u, or by changing qu to c: equos, afterward equus, a horse; quom, or cum, afterward, though not properly in classical times, quum, when. Observe that when o becomes u, a preceding qu becomes c: quom, cum; loquōtūs, locūtus, having spoken. See Brambach, p. b.

² See 16, note 2.

³ Observe that after e is dropped, \tilde{a} is shortened in the final syllable: $anim\tilde{a}l$, animal; see 21, 2.

⁴ In the comparative ending *ior*, as seen in *altior*, i is a vowel, but in the same ending, as seen in m-ior, major, it is a consonant, and in this grammar is generally written j. I thus becomes j between two vowels; see 2, 4, foot-note. So in the genitive ending ius, i is sometimes a vowel and sometimes a consonant.

 $^{^{5}}$ The ending which appears as $u\bar{\imath}$ in $col\text{-}u\bar{\imath}$ becomes $r\bar{\imath}$ in $voc\bar{\imath}\text{-}v\bar{\imath}$. U becomes v between two vowels.

⁶ If a vowel precedes the v thus changed to u, a contraction takes place—a-u becoming au, rarely \bar{o} , o-u becoming \bar{o} , and u-u becoming \bar{u} : lartus, lautus, lōtus, washed: movtus, moutus, mōtus, moved; juvtus, jūtus, assisted.

before them. Thus agr (for agrus) becomes ager, field; $\ddot{a}er$ (for $\ddot{a}eris$), $\ddot{a}eer$, sharp; regm, regem, king; sm (for esm), sum, I am; snt (for esnt), sunt, they are.

III. CHANGES IN CONSONANTS.

30. A Guttural—c, g,3 q (qu), or h4—before s generally unites with it and forms x:

Ducs, dux, leader; pācs, pāx, peace; rēgs, rēcs, s rēx, king; lēgs, lēcs, lēx, law; cogusī, cocs, s coxī, I have cooked; trahsī, tracsī, tracsī, I have drawn.

Note 1-V for gv in $v\bar{v}v\check{o}$, I live, is treated as a guttural: $v\bar{v}v\bar{s}i$, $v\bar{v}c\bar{s}i$, $v\bar{v}c\bar{s}i$, $V\bar{s}c\bar{s}i$, $V\bar{s}c\bar{$

Note 2.—For the Dropping of the Guttural before s, see 36, 3.

31. S is often changed to r:

1. Generally so when it stands between two vowels: § floses, flores, flowers; jūsa, jūra, rights; mēnsāsum, mēnsārum, of tables; agrōsum, agrōrum, of fields; esam, eram, I was; esāmus, erāmus, we were; fuēsunt, fuērunt, they have been; fuesit, fuerit, he will have been; amāset, amāret, be would love; regisis, regeris, vou are ruled.

Note.—This phonetic law, in full force during the formative period of the language, subsequently became inoperative.

2. Sometimes before $m, n, \text{ or } v : casmen, carmen, \text{ song}; \textit{vetesnus}, \textit{veternus}, \text{ old}; \textit{hodiesnus}, \textit{hodiernus}, \text{ of this day}; \textit{Minesva}, {}^{8}\textit{Minerva}, \text{ the goddess Minerva}.$

32. D is sometimes changed to 1:

Dacrima, lacrima, tear; dingua, lingua, language; odère, olère, to emit an odor.

Note 1.—D final sometimes stands in the place of an original t:id, this; istud, that: illud, that; quod, quid, what, which?

Note 2.-Dv at the beginning of a word (1) sometimes becomes b:dvellum, bellum, war; dvis, bis, twice; (2) sometimes drops d:dviginti, viginti, twenty; and (3) sometimes drops v:dvis, dis, inseparable particle (308), in two, asunder.

33. Partial Assimilation.—A consonant is often partially 10 assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

¹ This occurs between consonants and at the end of words after consonants.

² The ending us or is is dropped (36, 5, 2), note), and r final vocalized to er; m becomes em in regem, and um in sum; n becomes un in sunt.

³ Sometimes qu: exstingusī, exstincsī, exstinxī, I have extinguished.

⁴ For an original gh.

⁶ The process seems to be that the guttural before s first becomes c, and then unites with s and forms x: thus in $coqus\overline{s}$, qu becomes c.

⁶ Hence, in many Latin words, r between two vowels represents an original s.

⁷ Observe that i before * becomes e before r; see 24.

⁸ For Men-es-va, men weakened to min, see 22, 1.

⁹ For it, istut, etc. D stands for t also in the old Ablative in d: praedād for praeāāt, afterward praedā, with booty; magistrātūd for magistrātūt, magistrātū, from the magistracy.

¹⁰ That is, it is adapted or accommodated to it, but does not become the same letter.

1. Before the surd **s** or **t**, a sonant **b** or **g** is generally changed **to** its corresponding surd, **p**¹ or **c**:

Scrībsī, scrīpsī, I have written; scrībtus, scrīptus, written; rēgsī, rēcsī, rēxī
(30), I have ruled; rēgtus, rēctus, ruled. See also 35, 3, note.

Note.—Qu, h for gh, and v for gv are also changed to c before s and t: cogust, coest, cost, the has cooked; cogutus, cocked; trahsit, tracsit, transit, he has drawn; trahtus, tractus, drawn; $v\bar{v}vsit$, tracsit, $v\bar{v}vit$, he has lived; $v\bar{v}vt\bar{u}rus$, $v\bar{v}ct\bar{u}rus$, about to live.

2. Before a sonant 1, m, n, or r, a surd c, p, or t is generally changed to its corresponding sonant, g, b, or d:

Neclegő, neglegő, I neglect; sec-mentum, segmentum, a cutting; populicus, púplicus, públicus, public; quatra, quadra, a square; quatrāgintā, quadrāgintā, forty.

3. Before a Labial p or b, n is generally changed to m:8

Inperő, imperő, I command; inperator, imperator, commander; inbellis, imbellis, unwarlike.

Note.—Before n, a Labial p or b is changed to m in a few words: sopnus, somnus, sleep; Sabnium, Samnium, the country of the Samnites.

- 4. M is changed to n-
- 1) Regularly before a Dental Mute:

Eumdem, eundem, the same; eōrumdem, eōrundem, of the same; qiemdam, quendam, a certain one; tamtus, tantus, so great; quamtus, quantus, how great, as great.

2) Often before a Guttural Mute:

Hum-ce, hunc, this; num-ce, nunc, o now; prim-ceps, princeps, first; num-quam or nunquam, o never; quamquam or quanquam, although.

¹ But b is generally retained (1) before s in nouns in bs: urbs, not urps, city, and in abs, from; and (2) before s and t in ob, on account of, and sub, under, in compounds and derivatives: ob-servins, observant; ob-tūsus, obtuse; sub-serībō, I subscribe; sub-ter, under. In these cases, however, b takes the sound of p, so that assimilation takes place in pronunciation, though not in urtifing. It is probable also that in some other consonants assimilation was observed even when omitted in writing: inprimīs and imprimīs, both pronounced imprīmīs. See Roby, I., p. lvii.; Munro, p. 10.

² Qu, also written qv, is not a syllable; nor is u or v in this combination either a vowel or a consonant, but simply a parasitic sound developed by q, which is never found without it.

³ For traghsit; h is dropped, and g assimilated to c.

⁴ For gvigvsit; the first g and the second v are dropped: vigsit, vicsit, vixit.

⁵ From populus, the people.

⁶ P is changed to b, and o is weakened to u; see 22.

⁷ From quattuor, four.

That is, the dental n becomes the labial m.

^{9 &}quot;Or" placed between two forms denotes that both are in good use: numquam Cs nunquam. In other cases the last is the only approved form: nunc, princeps.

NOTE 1.—Before the ending -que, m is generally retained: 1 quicumque, whoever; quemque, every one; namque, for indeed.

Note 2.—Quom-iam or quom-jam becomes quonium, since.

34. A consonant is often completely assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

1. T or d is often assimilated before n or s:

Petna, penna, feather; mercednārius, mercennārius, mercenary; concutsit, concussit, he has shaken.

Note.—M before s is sometimes assimilated, and sometimes develops p: premsit, pressit, he has pressed; sūmsit, sūmpsit, he has taken.

2. D, n, or r is often assimilated before 1:

Sedula, sedla (27), sella, seat; ūnulus, ūnlus (27), ūllus, any; puerula, puella, girl.

3. B, g, or n is often assimilated before m:

Sub-moveő or sum-moveő, I remove; supmus, summus, highest; flagma, flamma, flame; inmötus or immötus, unmoved.

Note.—For Assimilation in Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

- 35. DISSIMILATION.—The meeting of consonants too closely related and the recurrence of the same consonant in successive syllables are sometimes avoided by changing one of the consonants. Thus—
 - 1. Caeluleus becomes caeruleus, azure; medī-diēs, merīdiēs, midday.
- 2. Certain suffixes of derivation have two forms, one with r to be used after l, and one with l to be used after $r:^2$ āris, ālis; burum, brum, bulum; bulum; curum, crum, culum:

Populāris, popular; rēgālis, kingly; dēlūbrum, shrine; tribulum, threshing-sledge; sepulcrum, sepulchre; periculum, peril.

- 3. A Dental Mute-d or t-may unite with a following t in two ways:
- 1) Dt or tt before r may become st:

Rodtrum, rostrum, a beak; equettris, equestris, equestrian.

2) Dt or tt before a vowel may become ss or s:5

Fodtus, fossus, dug; ridtus, vīsus, seen; plaudtus, plausus, praised; mettus, messus, reaped; verttus, versus, turned.

¹ But probably with the sound of n; see p. 17, foot-note 1.

² This distinction is, however, not always observed. The form with l, probably weakened from that with r, became the favorite form, and was generally used if l did not precede.

³ From burum are formed (1) brum by dropping u, and (2) bulum by weakening r into l. In the same way crum and culum are formed from curum.

⁴ In populäris, äris is used because l precedes; but in $r\bar{e}g\bar{a}lis$, $\bar{a}lis$ is used because r precedes. When neither l nor r precedes, the weakened form $\bar{a}lis$ is used.

⁵ In regard to the exact process by which dt or tt becomes ss or s, there is a diversity of opinion among philologians. See Papillon, p. 75; Roby, p. 62: Corssen, I., p. 208; Stolz, p. 183, 187; Osthoff, p. 550.

Note.—Let may become ls; 1 rgt, rs; 1 llt, ls; 2 and rrt, rs: 2 mulgtus, mulsus, milked; spargtus, sparsus, scattered; falltus, falsus, false; verrtus, versus, swept.

- 36. Omission.—Consonants are sometimes dropped. Thus—
- 1. Some words which originally began with two consonants have dropped the first:

Clāmentum, lamentum, lamentation; gnātus, nātus, born; gnōtus, nōtus, known; dvīgintī, vīgintī, twenty; sfallit, fallit, he deceives.

2. A Dental Mute-d or t-before s is generally dropped: 5

Lapids, lapis, stone; aetāts, aetās, age; mīlets, mīles, soldier; claudsī, clausī, I have closed.

Note.—D is occasionally dropped before other consonants: hod-ce, $h\bar{c}\bar{c}$, $h\bar{c}c$, $h\bar{b}c$, this; $quo\bar{d}$ - $circ\bar{a}$, $qu\bar{o}circ\bar{a}$, g for which reason: ad- $gn\bar{o}sc\bar{b}$, \bar{d} $gn\bar{o}sc\bar{b}$, \bar{l} recognize.

- 3. A Guttural Mute-c, g, or q (qu)-is generally dropped-
- 1) Between a Liquid and s:

Mulcsit, mulsit, he has appeased; fulgsit, fulsit, it has lightened.

2) Between a Liquid and t:

Fulctus, fultus, propped; sarctus, sartus, repaired.

3) Between a Liquid and m:

Fulgmen, fulmen, lightning; torqumentum, tormentum, engine for hurling missiles.

Note 1.—A Guttural Mute is occasionally dropped in other situations.

- 1. C before m and cs before n: lūcmen, lūmen, light; lūcsna, lūna, moon.
- 2. C between n and d or t: quinctus, quintus, th; quincdecim, quindecim, th:
- 8. G before m or v: 8 exāgmen, exāmen (20, 1), a swarm; jūgmentum, jūmentum, beast of burden; magvult, māvult, he prefers; bregvis, brevis, short.

Note 2.—X is sometimes dropped: sex decim, sedecim (20, 1), sixteen; sex nī, senī, six each; texula, texla, tila, a web; axula, axla, āla, wing.

Note 3.—N, or, and s are sometimes dropped: in-gnôtus, ignètus, unknown; fêr-mônsus, fêrmôsus, beautiful; quotiëns, quoti s, how often; deciëns, deciës, ten

- 1 T is changed to s, and g is dropped.
- ² T is changed to s, and one l is dropped in llt, and one r in rrt.
- 3 Compare clāmo, I cry out.
- 4 Seen in ī-gnōtus, īgnōtus, unknown.
- ⁵ Probably first assimilated and then dropped: lapids, lapiss, lapis. But the dental is sometimes assimilated and retained: cēdsī, cessī, I have yielded: concutsit, concussit, he has shaken.
 - 6 O lengthened in compensation; see 20, 1.
- ⁷ Sextius becomes Sestius, a proper name; sexcentī, sescentī, six hundred; and mīxtus, mīxtus, mixed, by dropping the mute contained in the double consonant x.
 - ⁸ G has also been dropped in āiō for agiō, I say; mājor for magior, greater, etc.
- ⁹ In numerals nt is sometimes dropped: ducentni, ducēni, two hundred each; vi-gent-simus or vicent-simus, vigēsimus or vicēsimus, twentieth.
 - 10 So in all numeral adverbs in iens, ies. The approved ending in most numeral

times; mulier-bris, muliebris, womanly; prōrsa, prōsa, prose; isdem, idem, same; jūs-dex, jūdex, judge; audīsne, audīne, audīn, do you hear? vīsne, vīne, vīn, do you wish?

4. A Semivowel-j or v, also written i or u-is often dropped:

Bi-jugae, biugae, bīgae, chariot with two horses; quadri-jugae, quadrīgae, chariot with four horses; con-jūnctus, co-jūnctus, cūnctus, the whole; abjició or abiciō,¹ I throw away; dīvitior, diitior, dītior, richer; nevolŏ, neolŏ, nolŏ, I am unwilling; amāverat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved.²

Note.—Separate words are sometimes united after the loss of $v: s\bar{i} \ v\bar{i}s, si\bar{i}s, si\bar{s}, si$, you wish; $s\bar{i} \ vultis, siultis, s\bar{i}ultis, s\bar{i}ultis$, if you wish.

- 5. Final consonants are often dropped. Thus-
- 1) Final s is often dropped: 3

Monēris, monēre (24,1, note), you are advised; illus, illu, ille, that; istus, istu, iste, that of yours; ipsus, ipsu, ipse, self, he; parricidas, parricide; magis or mage, more; sīvīs, sīve, whether, lit., if you wish.

Note.—In the early poets es, thou art, and est, he is, after having dropped the initial e, sometimes become attached to the preceding word, which has lost its final s: veritus es, veritu's, you feared; tempus est, tempusi, it is time; virtūs est, virtūst, it is virtue. See 27. note.

2) A final d or t is often dropped:

Cord, cor, heart; praedād, praedā, with booty; intrād, intrā, within; facilumēd, facillimē, most easily; vēnērunt, vēnēru, vēnēre, they have come; rēxērunt, rēxēre, they have ruled.

Note.—Sometimes both a vowel and a consonant disappear at the end of a word: puerus, puer, boy (51, 2, 4)); deinde or dein, thereupon; nihilum or nihil, nothing.

3) A final n⁸ is generally dropped in the Nominative Singular from years in on:

Leon, leo, lion; praedon, praedo, robber; homon, homo, man.

adverbs is ies, but in those formed from indefinite numerals, as tot, quot, it is iens: totiens, quotiens.

- ¹ This is the approved form in verbs compounded of $jact\delta$ and monosyllabic prepositions; but $abici\delta$ is pronounced as if written $abjici\delta$ or $ab-iici\delta$, i. e., i=ji, pronounced we by the Roman method. The syllable ab thus remains long.
- ² Several adverbial forms were produced by the loss of v with the attendant changes: revorsus, reorsus, rūrsus, back; subsvorsum, susvorsum, suorsum, sūrsum, from be low, on high.
- 3 In early inscriptions proper names in os, afterward us, occur without the s as often as with it: Röscios, Röscio; Gabinios, Gabinio.
 - ⁴ This form actually occurs in early Latin.
- ⁵ The Ablative singular ended anciently in d, originally t. Many prepositions and adverbs in \bar{a} and \bar{e} are ablatives in origin, and accordingly ended in d.
 - 6 Written with one /, afterward with two.
- ⁷ Here final t was first dropped, then n, having become final, also disappeared, and at last final u was weakened to e; see 24, 1, note.
 - 8 In early inscriptions final m is often dropped.

PART SECOND.

ETYMOLOGY.

- 37. ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.
- 38. The Parts of Speech are—Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

- **39**. A Noun or Substantive is a name, as of a person, place, or thing: *Cicero*, Cicero; *Rōma*, Rome; *domus*, house.
- 1. A Proper Noun is a proper name, as of a person or place : $Cicer\check{o}$, $R\check{o}ma$.
- 2. A Common Noun is a name common to all the members of a class of objects: vir, man; equus, horse. Common nouns include—
- 1) Collective Nouns, designating a collection of objects: populus, people; exercitus, army.
- Abstract Nouns, designating properties or qualities: virtūs, virtue; jūstitia, justice.
- 3) Material Nouns, designating materials as such: aurum, gold; hgnum, wood; aqua, water.
 - 40. Nouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

I. Gender.

41. There are three genders'—Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

Note.—In some nouns gender is determined by signification; in others, by endings.

¹ In English, Gender denotes sex. Accordingly, masculine nouns denote males; feminine nouns, females; and neuter nouns, objects which are neither male nor female. In Latin, however, this natural distinction of gender is applied only to the names of males and females; while, in all other nouns, gender depends upon an artificial distinction according to grammatical rules.

- 42. GENERAL RULES FOR GENDER.
- I. MASCULINES.
- 1. Names of Males: Cicero; vir, man; rex, king.
- 2. Names of *Rivers*, *Winds*, and *Months*: *Rhēnus*, Rhine; *Notus*, south wind; *Mārtius*, March.

II. FEMININES.

- 1. Names of Females: mulier, woman; leaena, lioness.
- 2. Names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees: Graecia, Greece; Rōma, Rome; Dēlos, Delos; pirus, peartree.

Note.—Indeclinable nouns, 1 infinitives, and all clauses used as nouns are neuter: alphq, the letter a. 2 See also 532.

43. Remarks on Gender.

- 1. Exceptions.—The endings ³ of nouns sometimes give them a gender at variance with these rules. Thus, some names of *rivers*, *countries*, *towns*, *islands*, *trees*, and *animals* take the gender of their endings; see 53, 1.
- 2. MASCULINE OR FEMININE.—A few personal appellatives applicable to both sexes and a few names of animals are sometimes *masculine* and sometimes *feminine*, but when used without distinct reference to sex they are generally *masculine*: cīvis, citizen (man or woman); bōs, ox, cow.
- 3. EPICENE Nouns apply only to the inferior animals. They are used for both sexes, but have only one gender, and that is usually determined by their endings: ānser, goose, masculine; aquila, eagle, feminine.

II. PERSON AND NUMBER.

44. The Latin, like the English, has three persons and two numbers. The first person denotes the speaker; the second, the person spoken to; the third, the person spoken of. The singular number denotes one, the plural more than one.

III. CASES.4

45. The Latin has six cases:

¹ Except names of persons.

² See 128, 1.

³ Gender as determined by the endings of nouns will be noticed in connection with the several declensions.

⁴ The case of a noun shows the relation which that noun sustains to other words; as, John's book. Here the possessive case (John's) shows that John sustains to the book the relation of possessor.

NAMES. ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS.

Nominative, Nominative.

Genitive, Possessive, or Objective with of.

Dative, Objective with to or for.

Accusative, Objective.

Vocative, Nominative Independent.

Ablative, Objective with from, with, by, in.

1. OBLIQUE CASES.—The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called the Oblique Cases.

2. LOCATIVE.—The Latin has also a few remnants of another case, called the Locative, denoting the place in which.

DECLENSION.

- 46. Stem and Suffixes.—The process by which the several cases of a word are formed is called Declension. It consists in the addition of certain suffixes to one common base called the stem.
- 1. Meaning.—Accordingly, each case-form contains two distinct elements—the $stem_i$ which gives the general meaning of the word, and the case-suffix, which shows the relation of that meaning to some other word. Thus, in $r\bar{e}g$ -is, of a king, the general idea, king, is denoted by the stem $r\bar{e}g$; the relation of, by the suffix is.
 - 2. Cases alike.—But certain cases are not distinguished in form.
- 1) The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative in Neuters are alike, and in the plural end in a.
- 2) The Nominative and Vocative are alike, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension (51).2
 - 3) The Dative and Ablative Plural are alike.
- 3. Characteristic.—The last letter of the stem is called the Stem-Characteristic, or the Stem-Ending.
- 47. FIVE DECLENSIONS.—In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the *stem-characteristics* or by the *endings* of the *Genitive Singular*, as follows:

¹ Moreover, in many words the stem itself is derived from a more primitive form called a *Root* For the distinction between *roots* and *stems*, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 313-318.

² And in some nouns of Greek origin.

	CHARACTERISTICS. GENI	TIVE ENDINGS.
DEC. I.	ă	ae
II.	o	ī
III.	i or a consonant	is
IV.	\mathbf{u}	ūs
V.	ĕ	ĕĭ

NOTE 1.—The five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection, as the case-suffixes are nearly identical in all nouns.

NOTE 2.—But these case-suffixes appear distinct and unchanged only in nouns with consonant-stems, while in all others they are seen only in combination with the characteristic, i. e., with the final vowel of the stem.

NOTE 3.—The ending produced by the union of the case-suffix with the charac teristic vowel may for convenience be called a Case-Ending.

FIRST DECLENSION: A NOUNS.

48. Nouns of the first declension end in a and ē—feminine; ās and ēs—masculine.

Nouns in α are declined as follows:

	SINGULAR.		
PLE.	MEANING.	CASE	-Ending
ēns a ,	a table,2		a ³
ēns ae ,	of a table,		ae
ēns ae ,	to, for a table,		ae
ens am ,	a table,		am
ens a ,	O table,		a
ēns ā ,	from, with, by a table,4		ā
	PLURAL.		
ins ae ,	tables,		ae
ins ārum ,	of tables,		ārum
ens īs ,	to, for tables,		13
ens ās ,	tables,		ās
ins ae ,	O tables,		ae
ns īs ,	from, with, by tables.4		īs
	ēns ārum , ēns īs , ēns ās , ēns ae ,	MEANING. a table, a tables, a	Meaning. Cabe ensa, a table, ² ensae, of a table, ensae, to, for a table, ensae, o table, ensae, o table, ensae, o table, ensae, table, ensae, table, ensae, tables, ensae, tables, ensae, tables, ensae, tables, ensae, tables, ensae, tables, ensae, o tables, ensae, o tables, ensae, o tables, ensae, o tables,

 $^{^1}$ That is, nouns of this declension in a and \bar{e} are feminine, and those in $\bar{a}s$ and $\bar{e}s$ are masculine.

² The Nom. mēnsa may be translated a table, table, or the table; see 48, 6.

³ These case-endings will serve as a practical guide to the learner in distinguishing the different cases. The two elements which originally composed them have undergone various changes, and in certain cases the one or the other has nearly or quite disappeared. Thus the suffix has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular, and appears only as e in four other case-forms, while the characteristic a has disappeared in the ending to, contracted from a-to, in the Dative and Ablative Plural; see 23, 2, note.

⁴ Still other prepositions, as in, on, at, are sometimes used in translating the Ablative

- 1. Stem .- In nouns of the first declension, the stem ends in a.
- 2. In the Paradigm, observe that the stem is mēnsā, and that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case-endings.
 - 3. Examples for Practice.—Like mēnsa decline:

Āla, wing; aqua, water; causa, cause; fortūna, fortune.

4. LOCATIVE.—Names of towns and a very few other words have a Locative Singular 1 in ae, denoting the place in which (45, 2), and are declined in the singular 2 number as follows:

Nom.	Rōma,	Rome,	mīliti a ,	war,3
Gen.	Rom ae ,	of Rome,	mīliti ae ,	of war,
Dat.	Rōmae,	for Rome, ³	mīliti ae ,	for war,
Acc.	Rōmam,	Rome,	mīliti am ,	war,
Voc.	Rōma,	O Rome,	mīliti a ,	O war,
Abl.	Rōmā, fr	rom Rome, ³	mīliti ā ,	from war,
Loc.	Rōm ae ,	at Rome.	mīliti ae ,	in war.

- 5. Exceptions in Gender.—1. A few nouns in a are masculine by signification: agricola, husbandman; see 42, I.—2. Hadria, Adriatic Sea, is masculine; sometimes also dāmma, deer, and talpa, mole.
- ARTICLE.—The Latin has no article: corona, crown, a crown, the crown; ala, wing, a wing, the wing.
 - 49. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur: 4
- 1. ās in the Genitive of familia, in composition with pater, mater, filius, and filia: paterfamilias, father of a family.
- 2. āī, an old form for the Genitive ending ae, in the poets: 5 aulāī, afterward aulae, of a hall.
- 3. um ⁶ in the Genitive Plural: Dardanidum for Dardanidārum, of the descendants of Dardanus.
- 4. ābus in the Dative and Ablative Plural, especially in dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deus, god, and filius, son: deābus for deīs, to goddesses.

In the Plural of all nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Athēnīs, at Athens. Whether, however, the form Athēnīs is in origin a Locative, an Ablative, or neither, is a disputed question. See Bopp, I., pp. 484 seq.; Schleicher, pp. 586, 587; Penka, p. 194; Delbrück, p. 27; Merguet, pp. 116, 117; Wordsworth, p. 59. In most nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative in both numbers.

² The Plural when used is like the Plural of mēnsa.

³ For the other prepositions which may be used in translating the Dative and the Ablative, see 45. *Mīlitia*, war, warfare, military service.

⁴ To these must be added for early Latin \tilde{a} in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and $\tilde{a}d$ in the Abl. Sing.; see 21, 2, 1), and 36, 5, 2).

⁵ Also in inscriptions as the ending of the Genitive, Dative, and Locative.

⁶ Contracted from a-um like the Greek \acute{a} - ωv , $\acute{\omega} v$, \ddot{u} shortened before m; see 580, II

Note.—Nouns in ia sometimes have is for iis in the Dative and Ablative Plural: $gr\bar{a}tis$ for $gr\bar{a}tis$, from $gr\bar{a}tia$, favor, kindness.

50. GREEK NOUNS.—Nouns of this declension in **ē**, **ās**, and **ēs** are of Greek origin, and are declined as follows:

Epito	omē, <i>epitome</i> .	Aenēās, Aeneas.	Pyrītēs, pyrites.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	epitom ē	Aenēās	pyrītēs
Gen.	epitom ēs	Aenē ae	pyrīt ae
Dat.	epitom ae	Aenē ae	pyrīt ae
Acc.	epitom ën	Aenēam, ān	pyrīt ēn
Voc.	epitom ē	Aenē ā	pyrīt ē , a
Abl.	epitom ē	Aenē ā	pyrīt ē , ā
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	epitom ae		pyrīt ae
Gen.	epitom ārum		pyrīt ārum
Dat.	epitom Is		pyrītīs
Acc.	epitomās		pyrītās
Voc.	epitomae.		pvrīt ae
Abl.	epitom Is		pvrītīs

Note 1.—In the Plural and in the Dative Singular, Greek nouns are declined like mēnsa.

Note 2.—In nouns in \tilde{e} and $\tilde{e}s$, the stem-ending \tilde{a} is changed to \tilde{e} in certain cases.

Note 3.—Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending a, and are declined like $m\tilde{e}nsa$.

Many in \tilde{e} have also a form in $a:epitom\tilde{e}_*epitoma$, epitome.

SECOND DECLENSION: O NOUNS.

51. Nouns of the second declension end in

er, ir, us, and os '-masculine; um, and on-neuter.

Nouns in er, ir, us, and um are declined as follows:

Servus, 2 slave. Puer, boy. Ager, field. Templum, temple, SINGULAR. Nom. servus 3 puer ager templum Gen. servī puerI templa agrI Dat. servõ puero agro templo Acc. servum puerum agrum templum Voc. serve templum puer ager Abl.servo puerō agrō templo

¹ Sometimes de.

² Sometimes written servos; see 52, 1.

³ In the Roman and in the Continental pronunciation, quantity furnishes a safe guide

PLUBAL

Nom.	serv1.	puer ī	agr ī	templa
Gen.	serv ōrum	puer ōrum	agr ōrum	templ ōrum
Dat.	servīs	puer īs	agr īs	templīs
Acc.	serv ōs -	puer ōs	agr ōs	templa
Voc.	servI	puer ī	agrī.	templa
Abl.	servīs	puer īs	agr īs	templīs

- 1. Stem.—In nouns of the second declension, the stem ends in o.
- 2. In the Paradigms, observe-
- 1) That the stems are servo, puero, agro, and templo.
- 2) That the characteristic **o** becomes **u** in the endings us and um, and **e** in serve, 1 that it disappears by contraction in the endings a, 2, 3, and 3s (for o-a, o-a, and o-is), a and is dropped in the forms puer and ager.
- 3) That the case-endings, including the characteristic o (47, N. 2), are as follows:

0 (11 11 (1)						
	SI	NGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	MASC.		NEUT		MASC.	NEUT.
Nom.	us 4		um	Nom.	ī	a
Gen.	ī		ī	Gen.	ōrum	ōrum
Dat.	ō	~	δ	Dat.	īs	18
Acc.	um		um	Acc.	õs	a
Voc.	e 4		um	Voc.	ī	a
Abl.	ŏ		Ö	Abl.	īs	īs

- 4) That puer and ager differ in declension from servus in dropping the endings us and e in the Nominative and Vocative: Nom. puer for puerus, Voc. puer for puere.
 - 5) That e in ager is developed by the final r.5
- 6) That templum, as a neuter noun, has the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative alike, ending in the plural in a; see 46, 2, 1).
- 3. Examples for Practice.—Like servus: dominus, master. Like Puer: gener, son-in-law. Like ager: magister, master. Like templum: bellum, war.

to the sounds of the vowels; see 5. In the English method, on the contrary, the quantity of the vowels is entirely disregarded, except as it affects the accent of the word. Thus, a in ager is short in quantity, but long in sound (10, 3), while $\bar{\imath}$ in $serv\bar{\imath}s$, $puer\bar{\imath}s$, $agr\bar{\imath}s$, and $templ\bar{\imath}s$ is long in quantity but short in sound (11, 1). Accordingly, in this method, the sounds of the vowels must be determined by the rules given in 9, 10 and 11. Moreover, the learner must not forget that when the quantity of the vowels known, the quantity of the syllable, as used in poetry, is readily determined by article 16.

¹ See 22 and 24, 1, note.

² Shortened from \tilde{a} ; see 21, 2, 1).

³ See 23, note, and 27.

⁴ The endings of the Nom. and Voc. Sing. are wanting in nouns in er.

⁵ See 29, note.

- 4. Nouns in er and ir.—Most nouns in er are declined like ager, but the following in er and ir are declined like puer:
 - 1) Nouns in ir: vir, virī, man.
- 2) Compounds in fer and ger: armiger, armigerī, armor-bearer; sīgnifer. sīgniferī, standard-bearer.
- 3) Adulter, adulterer; Celtiber, 1 Celtiberian; gener, son-in-law; Iber, 1 Spaniard; Liber, Bacchus; liberi, children; Mulciber, 1 Vulcan; presbyter, elder; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening.
- 5. Nouns in **ius** generally contract **iī** in the Genitive Singular and **ie** in the Vocative Singular into $\bar{\mathbf{i}}$ without change of accent: Claudī for Claudīi, of Claudīus, $f\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}$ for $f\bar{\imath}li\bar{\imath}$, of a son; Mercu'rī for Mercu'rie, Mercury, $f\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}$ for $f\bar{\imath}lie$, son.² In the Genitive Singular of nouns in **ium** the same contraction takes place: $inge'n\bar{\imath}$ for $inge'n\bar{\imath}$, of talent; see 18, 1.
- 6. Deus is thus declined: Sing. deus, deē, deen, deus, deō: Plur. N. and V. deī, diī, dī; G. deōrum, deum; D. and A. deīs, diīs, dīs; Acc. deōs.
- 7. Neuters in us.—The three neuter nouns in us, 4 pelagus, sea, vīrus, poison, and vulgus, the common people, are declined in the singular as follows:

Nom., Acc., Voc	. pelagus	vīrus	vulgus5
Gen.	pelagī	vīrī	vulgī
Dat., Abl.	pelagō	vīrō	vulgō

Note.—Pelagus is a Greek noun (54, N. 2), and in general is used only in the singular, though $pelag\bar{e}$ occurs as an Acc. Plur. $V\bar{\imath}rus$ and vulgus are used only in the singular. Vulgus has a masculine Acc., vulgum, in addition to the neuter form vulgus.

8. LOCATIVE.—Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative Singular ⁶ in $\bar{\imath}$, denoting the *place in which* (45, 2), and are declined in the singular ⁷ number as follows:

Nom.	Ephesus, Ephesus,	bell um , war,
Gen.	EphesI, of Ephesus,	bell T , of war,
Dat.	Epheso, for Ephesus,	bello, for war,
Acc.	Ephesum, Ephesus,	bellum, war,
Voc.	Ephese, O Ephesus,	bellum, Owar,
Abl.	Epheso, from Ephesus,	bello, from, by war,
Loc.	Ephesi, at Ephesus.	bell, in war.

¹ Celliber and Iber have e long in the Gen., and Mulciber sometimes drops e.

² Nouns in èius sometimes contract èie in the Voc. Sing. into en; Pompei or Pompei, Pompey.

³ Di and dis are the approved forms, but dei, dii and deis, diis also occur.

⁴ Originally s-stems which by the loss of s in the oblique cases have become o-stems; see 62, I., 1, foot-note.

⁵ Also written volgus.

⁶ In the Plural the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Gabiis, at Gabii; see 48, 4, foot-note.

⁷ The Plural, when used, is like the Plural of servus, puer, etc.

- 52. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur: 1
- 1. os and om, old endings for us and um, sometimes used after v and $u:^2$ servos for servus, servom for servum; mortuos for mortuus, dead.
 - 2. us for e in the Vocative of deus, god; rare in other words.
- 3. um in the Genitive Plural, especially common in a few words denoting money, weight, and measure: talentum for talentōrum, of talents; also in a few other words: deum for deōrum; līberum for līberōrum; Argīvum for Argīvōrum.

Note.—The ending um occurs also in the Genitive Plural of many other words, especially in poetry. For the quantity of u, see p. 25, foot-note 6.

- 53. GENDER.—Nouns in er, ir, us, and os are masculine, those in um and on are neuter; except—
- 1. The Feminines:—(1) See 42, II., but observe that many names of countries, towns, islands, and trees follow the gender of their endings. (2) Most names of gems and ships are feminine: also alvus, belly; carbasus, sail; colus, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, sieve. (3) A few Greek feminines.
- 2. The Neuters:—pelagus, sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus, common people. For declension, see 51, 7.
- 54. Greek Nouns.—Nouns of this declension in os, ōs, and on are of Greek origin, and are declined in the singular as follows:

Nom. Dēlos Androgeōs Īlion	
Gen. Dēlī Androgeō, ī Īliī	
Dat. Dēl ō Androge ō Īli ō	
Acc. Dēlon Androgeōn, ō Īlion	
Voc. Dēle Androgeōs Īlion	
Abl. Dēl $ar{\mathbf{o}}$ Androge $ar{\mathbf{o}}$ $ar{\mathbf{l}}$ li $ar{\mathbf{o}}$	

NOTE 1.—The Plural of nouns in os and on is generally regular, but certain Greek endings occur, as oe in the Nominative Plural, and on in the Genitive.

Note 2.—Most Greek nouns generally assume the Latin forms in us and um, and are declined like servus and templum. Many in os or on have also a form in us or um.

Note 3 .- For Greek nouns in eus, see 68 and 68, 1,

Note 4.—Panthūs has Voc. Panthū. For pelagus, see 51, 7, note.

¹ To these must be added for early Latin: 1) $\bar{c}d$ in Abl. Sing., and \bar{a} in Nom., Acc., and Voc. of the Neut. Plur.; see 36, 5, 2), and 21, 2, 1); 2) oe in Gen. Sing.; oe, \bar{e} , \bar{e} , \bar{e} , \bar{e} , and \bar{e} in Nom. Plur.: poploe=populi; $ploirum\bar{e}=plurimi$; $vir\bar{e}s=viri$; leibereis or $leiber\bar{e}s=liberi$.

² Some recent editors have adopted vos, uos, rom and uom, for vus, uus, rum and uum, but the wisdom of such a course is at least questionable See Brambach, p. 3.

³ M. stands for masculine, F. for feminine, and N. for neuter.

THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I NOUNS.

55. Nouns of the third declension end in

a, e, ī, ŏ, y, c, l, n, r, s, t, and x.

- 56. Nouns of this declension may be divided into two classes:
 - I. Nouns whose stem ends in a Consonant.
 - II. Nouns whose stem ends in I.1

CLASS I .- CONSONANT STEMS.

57. STEMS ENDING IN A LABIAL: B OR P.

Princeps, M., 2 a leader, chief.

		SINGULAR.	CASE-SUFFIXES
Nom.	princeps,	a leader,	8
Gen.	prīncip is ,	of a leader,	· is
Dat.	prīncip ī ,	to, for a leader,	ĩ
Acc.	prīncip em ,	a leader,	· em
Voc.	prīnceps,	O leader,	S
Abl.	prīncipe,	from, with, by a leader,	е
		PLURAL,	
Nom.	prīncip ēs ,	leaders,	ēs
Gen.	prīncip um ,	of leaders,	um
Dat.	prīncip ibus ,	to, for leaders,	ibus
Acc.	prīncip ēs ,	leaders,	ēs
Voc.	prīncip ēs ,	O leaders,	ēs
Abl.	prīncip ibus ,	from, with, by leaders.	ibus

- 1. Stem and Case-Suffixes.—In this Paradigm observe-
- 1) That the stem is princep, modified before an additional syllable to princip; see 22, 1, and 57, 2.
- 2) That the case-suffixes appear distinct and separate from the stem; see 46, 1, and 47, note 2.
- 2. Variable Vowel.—In the final syllable of dissyllabic consonant stems, short \mathbf{e} or \mathbf{i} generally takes the form of e in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and that of i in all the other cases. Thus princeps,

¹ For Gender, see 99-115.

² See foot-note 3, p. 29.

³ Thus, princep-s, princip-is, etc. In the first and second declensions, on the contrary, the suffix can not be separated from the final vowel of the stem in such forms as mēnsīs, puerī, agrīs, etc.

Miles, M., soldier,

prīncipis, and jūdex, jūdicis (59), alike have e in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and i in all the other cases, though in prīnceps the original form of the radical vowel is e, and in jūdex, i. For a similar change in the vowel of the stem, see mīles, mīlitis (58), and carmen, carminis (60). See also opus, operis (61).

Aetās, F., age.

- 3. In monosyllables in bs the stem ends in i; see urbs, 64.
- 4. For the Locative in the Third Declension, see 66, 4.
- 5. For Synopsis of Declension, see 87, 89.

Lapis, M., stone.

58. Stems ending in a Dental: D or T.

	, ,	, , ,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	lapis	aetās	mīles
Gen.	lapidis	aetāt is	mīlit is
Dat.	lapid∎	aetāt ī	$m\bar{\imath}lit\bar{\imath}$
Acc.	lapid em	aetāt em	mīlit em
Voc.	lapis	aetās	mīles
Abl.	lapide	aetāt e	mīlit e
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	lapidēs	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Gen.	lapidum	aetāt um	mīlit um
Dat.	lapidibus	aetāt ibus	mīlit ibus
Acc.	lapides	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Voc.	lapid ēs	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Abl.	lapid ibus	aetāt ibus	mīlit ibus
Nepōs,	M., grandson.	Virtūs, f., virtue.	Caput, N., head.
Nom.	nepōs	virtūs	caput
Gen.	nepõt is	virtūt is	capitis
Dat.	nepōt ī	virtūt ī	capitI
Acc.	nepôt em	virtūt em	caput
Voc.	nepōs	virtūs	caput
Abl.	\mathbf{n} epōt \mathbf{e}	virtūte	capite
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	nepōt ēs	virtūt ēs	capita
Gen.	nepõt um	virtūt um	c apit um
Dat.	nepõt ibus	virtūt ibus	capit ibus
~			

¹ See 22, 1.

² See 22, 1, foot-note,

Acc.	nepōt ēs	virtūt ēs	capita
Voc.	nepōt ēs	virtūt ēs	capita
· Abl.	nepõt ibus	virtūt ibus	capit ibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In these Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are lapid, aetāt, mīlit, nepōt, virtūt, and caput.
- 2) That miles has the variable vowel, e, i, and caput, u, i; see 57, 2.
- 3) That the dental d or t is dropped before s: lapis for lapids, aetās for aetāts, mīles for mīlets, virtūs for virtūts; see 36, 2.
- 4) That the case-suffixes, except in the *neuter*, caput (46, 2), are the same as those given above; see 57.
- 5) That the neuter, caput, has no case-suffix in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular, a in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and the suffixes of masculine and feminine nouns in the other cases.
- 2. NEUTER STEMS IN at drop t in the Nominative Singular and end in a: Nom., poèma, Gen., poèmatis; Stem, poèmat. These nouns sometimes have is for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural: poèmatis for poèmatibus.
 - 3. For Synopsis of Declension, see 69, 78-84.

59. Stems ending in a Guttural: C or G.

	Rêx, M.,	Jūdex, m. & f.,	Rādīx, F,	Dux, M. & F.,				
	king.	judge.	root.	leader.				
	v	SINGULAR.						
		SINGULAR.						
Nom.	rēx	jūdex	rādīx	dux				
Gen.	rēgis	jūdic is	rādīc is	ducis				
Dat.	rēgī	jūdie T	rādīcī	dueL				
Acc.	rēg em	jūdic em	rādīc em	duc em				
Voc.	rēx	jūdex	rādīx	dux				
Abl.	rēge	jūdice	rādīc e	duce				
	PLURAL.							
				4				
Nom.	rēgēs	jūdic ēs	rādīc ēs	ducēs				
Gen.	rēgum	jūdic um	rādīc um	duc um				
Dat.	rēg ibus	jūdic ibus	rādīc ibus	ducibus				
Acc.	rēg ēs	jūdic ēs	rādīc ēs	duc ēs				
Voc.	rēg ēs	jūdic ēs	rādīc ēs	ducēs				
Abl.	rēg ibus	jūdic ibus	rādīc ibus	ducibus				

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are $r\bar{r}g$, $j\bar{u}dic$, $r\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}c$, and duc; $j\bar{u}dic$ with the variable vowel, i, e; see 57, 2.
 - 2) That the case-suffixes are those given in 57.
- 3) That s in the Nominative and Vocative Singular unites with c or g of the stem and forms x; see 30.
 - 2. For Synopsis of Declension, see Nouns in x, 91-98.

60. Stems ending in L, M, N, or R.

	Sōl, M.,	Consul, M.,	Passer, M.,	Pater, M.			
	sun.	consul.	sparrow.	father.			
		SINGULAR.					
Nom.	sõl	cōnsul	passer	pater			
Gen.	sõlis	consulis	passer is	patris			
Dat.	sõlī	consul	passer I	patrī			
Acc.	sõl em	cōnsulem	passerem	patrem			
Voc.	sõl	consul	passer	pater			
Abl.	sõl e	cōnsule	passere	patre			
		PLURAL.					
Nom.	sōl ēs ¹	cōnsul ēs	passer ēs	patr ēs -			
Gen.		cõnsul um	passer um	patrum			
Dat.	sõl ibus	consulibus	passer ibus	patribus			
Acc.	sōl ēs	cōnsul ēs	passer ēs	patr ēs			
Voc.	sõlēs	consul ēs	passer ēs	patr ēs			
Abl.	sõl ibus	consul ibus	passeribus	patribus			
Pāstor, M., Leŏ, M., Virgŏ, F., Carmen, N.,							
	Pāstor, M., shepherd.	Leŏ, M.,	maiden.	song.			
	вперпега.	SINGULAR.	manuen.	sony.			
Nom.	pāstor	leŏ	virgŏ	carmen			
Gen.	pāstor is	leōn is	virgin is	carminis			
Dat.	pāstōr ī	leōn ī	virgin I	carmin ī			
Acc.	pāstör em	leōn em	virginem	carmen			
Voc.	pastor	leŏ	virgŏ	carmen			
Abl.	pāstōre	leōn e	virgine	carmin e			
2100.	pastore	ROBE	vii 6ine	Curimino			
		PLURAL.					
Nom.	want and	10555	virginēs	carmina			
	pāstör ēs	leōn ës	0				
Gen.	pāstör um	leõn um	virginum	carmin um			
Dat.	pāstōr um pāstōr ibus	leõn um leõn ibus	virgin um virgin ibus	carmin um carmin ibus			
Dat. Acc.	pāstōr um pāstōr ibus pāstōr ēs	leõn um leõn ibus leõn ēs	virgin um virgin ibus virgin ēs	carmin um carmin ibus carmin a			
Dat.	pāstōr um pāstōr ibus	leõn um leõn ibus	virgin um virgin ibus	carmin um carmin ibus			

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are sol, consul, passer, patr,2 pastor, leon, virgon, and carmen.

¹ Many monosyllables want the Gen. Plur.; see 133, 5.

² That is, the stem is patr when followed by a vowel; but when r becomes final, it develops e before it, and patr becomes pater; see 29, note.

2) That virgo (virgon) has the variable vowel, o, i, and carmen, e, i.

3) That in the Nominative and Vocative Singular s, the usual case-suffix for masculine and feminine nouns, is omitted, and that in those cases the stem $p\bar{a}st\bar{o}r$ shortens o, while $le\bar{o}n$ and virgon drop n; see 21, 2, 2), and 36, 5, 3).

2. Hiems, the only stem in m, takes s in the Nominative and Vocative Singular. Also sanguis (for sanguins), blood, and Salamis (for Salamins), Salamis, which drop n before s; see 36, 3, note 3.

3. Passer, Pater.—Most nouns in er are declined like passer, but those in ter, and a few others, are declined like pater; see 77, 2.

4. Leŏ, Virgŏ.—Most nouns in o are declined like leŏ, but those in dč and gŏ, with a few others, are declined like virgŏ; see 72, with exceptions.

5. Four stems in or change o to u; see 77, 4.

6. For the Locative in the Third Declension, see 66, 4.

7. For Synopsis of Declension, see 72, 75-77.

61. STEMS ENDING IN S.

	Flös, M., flower.	Jūs, N., right.	Opus, N., work.	Corpus, N., body.
		SINGULA	R.	
Nom.	flös	jūs	opus	corpus
Gen.	flör is	jūr is	oper is	corporis
Dat.	flōr T	jūr ī	operT	corporT
Acc.	flör em	jūs	opus	corpus
Voc.	flōs	jūs	opus	corpus
Abl.	flör e	jűr e	opere	corpore
		PLURAL		
Nom.	flör ës	jūra	oper a	corpora
Gen.	flör um	jūr um	oper um	corporum
Dat.	flör ibus	jūr ibus	oper ibus	corporibus
Acc.	flör ēs	jūr a	oper a	corpora
Voc.	flör ēs	jūr a	operai	corpora
Abl.	flör ibus	jūr ibus	oper ibus	corporibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are flos, jūs, opos, and corpos.

2) That opus has the variable vowel, e, u, and corpus, o, u.

- 3) That s of the stem becomes r between two vowels: flos, floris (for flosis); see 31, 1.
 - 4) That the Nom. and Voc. Sing. omit the case-suffix; see 60, 1, 3).

2. For Synopsis of Declension, see 79, 80, 82-84.

¹ Opos occurs in early Latin. In os, from the Primary Suffix as (320), o was weakened to u in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing. of opus and corpus, while in all the other case-forms it was weakened to e in opus, but retained unchanged in corpus; see 22.

CLASS II .- I STEMS.

62. Stems ending in I.—Nouns in is and es, not increasing in the Genitive.

	Tussis, f.,	Turris, F.,	Īgnis, м.,	Hostis, M. & F.,	Nūbēs, 2 F.,				
	cough.	tower.	fire.	enemy.	cloud.				
	SINGULAR.								
Nom.	tussis	turr is	īgn is	host is	nüb ēs				
Gen.	tussis	turris	īgn is	host is	nūb is				
Dat.	tussī	turrī	īgn ī	hostī	nūb ī				
Acc.	tussim	turr im, em	i īgn em	hostem	nüb em				
Voc.	tussis	turris	īgn is	hostis	nūb ēs				
Abl.	tussī	turr ī , e	īgn ī, e	hoste	nũb e				
			PLURAL.						
Nom.	tussēs	turrēs	īgn ēs	host ēs	nūb ēs				
Gen.	tussium	turr ium	īgnium	hostium	nüb ium				
Dat.	tussibus	turr ibus	īgn ibu s	s hostibus	nūb ibus				
Acc.	tuss ēs, īs	turr ēs, īs	īgn ēs , I	s hostēs, īs	nūb ēs, īs				
Voc	tuss ēs	turr ēs	īgn ēs	hostēs	nūb ēs				
Abl.	tuss ibus	turribus	īgnibus	s hostibus	nūb ibus				

- I. Paradigms.—Observe—
- 1. That the stems are tussi, turri, īgni, hosti, and nūbi.3
- 2. That the case-endings, including the characteristic i, which disappears in certain cases, are as follows:

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.	is, ēs	ēs
Gen.	is	ium
Dat.	ĩ	ibus
Acc.	im, em	ēs, īs
Voc.	is	ēs
Abl.	ī, e	ibus

¹ That is, having as many syllables in the Nom. Sing. as in the Gen. Sing.

² Observe (1) that tussis, turris, ignis, and hostis differ in declension only in the Acc. and Abl. Sing., tussis showing the final i of the stem in both those cases, turris sometimes in both, ignis sometimes in the Abl., not in the Acc., hostis in neither (2) that $n\bar{u}b\bar{e}s$ differs from the other four in taking is instead of is in the Nom. and Voc. Sing.

³ Nouns in ēs, Gen. is, are best treated as i-stems, although some of them were originally s-stems (61). Thus, originally the stem of nibēs was itself nibēs, but s was finally treated as the Nom. suffix, and the word was accordingly declined like the large class of i-nouns mentioned under 62, V. The origin of i-stems is obscure. A few correspond to i-stems in the cognate tongues, as ignis, ovis, turris; a few are weakened from a-stems or o-stems, as foris, a door, Gr. θύρα, imber=imbris, rain-storm, Gr. δμβρος; some are formed from s-stems, as nūbēs, just mentioned. Upon the general subject of i-stems, see Roby, pp. 186-149; Schleicher, pp. 384, 482, 453; Corssen, I. 281, 571, 738 seq.; II. 227; Merguet, pp. 36-40, 51, 67, 95, etc.

II. Like TUSSIS-Acc. im, ABL. I-are declined-

- 1. Būris, plough-tail; rāvis, hoarseness; sitis, thirst.
- In the Singular: (1) Names of rivers and places in is not increasing in the Genitive: Tiberis, Hispalis; see 582. (2) Greek nouns in is, Gen. is, and some others.

III. Like TURRIS-Acc. im, em, ABL. ī, e-are declined-

Clāvis, key; febris, fever; messis, harvest; nāvis, ship; puppi;, stern; restis, rope; secūris, axe; sēmentis, sowing; strigilis, strigil.

1. Araris, or Arar (for Araris), the Saône, and Liger (for Ligeris), the Loire, have Acc. im, em, Abl. ī, e.

IV. Like IGNIS-Acc. em, ABL. i, e-are declined-

Amnis, river; anguis, serpent; avis, bird; bīlis, bile; cīvis, citizen; clāssis, fleet; collis, hill; fīnis, end; orbis, circle; postis, post; unguis, nail, and a few others.

Note 1.—Adjectives in **er** (for *ris*) and those in **is** have the Ablative in **ī** (153, 154). Accordingly, when such adjectives are used *substantively*, the *ī* is generally retained: *September*, *September*; *2 familiārīs*, *familiārīs*, friend. But adjectives used as proper names have **e**: *Juvenīlis*, *Juvenāle*, Juvenāl.

NOTE 2.—Imber (for imbris), storm; vesper (for vesperis), evening, and a few others, sometimes have the Ablative in $\bar{\mathbf{1}}$.

V. Like HOSTIS—Acc. em, ABL. e—are declined all nouns in is, Gen. is, not provided for under II., III., and IV.³

VI. Like NUBES are declined all nouns in ēs, Gen. is.4

63. Stems ending in I.—Neuters in e, al, and ar.

Mare, sea. Animal, animal. Calcar, spur. SINGULAR. CASE-ENDINGS. Nom. mare animal calcar e-- 6 Gen. maris animālis calcāris Dat. marl animālī calcari Acc. animal calcar mare Voc. mare animal calcar A67. marT 5 animālī calcarI

¹ The shortening of Araris to Arar and of Ligeris to Liger is similar to the shortening of puerus to puer; see 51, 2, 4; 36, 5, 2, note.

² Names of months are adjectives used substantively. Originally mēnsis, month, was understood.

³ Except canis and juvenis, which are consonant-stems, but have assumed i in the Nom, Sing. In the plural they have um in the Gen and ēs in the Acc. Apis, mēnsis, and volucris often have um for ium in the Gen.

⁴ Except struës and vātēs, which generally have um in Gen. Pl., and sēdēs, which has um or ium. Compēs, Gen. edis, has also ium.

⁵ See 2 below.

⁶ The dash here implies that the case-ending is sometimes wanting.

LIII		

Nom.	mar ia	animāl ia	caleār ia	ia
Gen.	marium	animālium	calcār ium	ium
Dat.	maribus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	ibus
Acc.	maria	animāl ia	calcār ia	ia
Voc.	mar ia	animāl ia	calcār ia	ia
Abl.	maribus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	ibus

- 1. Paradigms.—Observe—
- 1) That the stem-ending i is changed to e in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of mare, and dropped in the same cases of animal (for animale) and calcar (for calcare); see 24, 1, note; 27; 21, 2, 2).
 - 2) That the case-endings include the characteristic i.
- 2. The following have e in the Ablative Singular:—(1) Names of towns in e; Praeneste.—(2) Generally rete, net, and in poetry sometimes mare.

Note.—Neuters in ar, with a short in the Genitive, are consonant-stems: nectar, nectar; also $s\bar{a}l$, salt, and $f\bar{a}r$, corn.

64. Stems ending in \mathbf{i} .—Nouns in \mathbf{s} and \mathbf{x} generally preceded by a consonant.

	Cliens, M. & F.,	Urbs, F.,	Arx, F.,	Mūs, 1 M.,
	client.	city.	citadel.	mouse.
		SINGULAR.		
Nom.	cliens	urbs	arx ³	mūs
Gen.	clientis ²	urb is	arc is	mūr is 4
Dat.	clientI	urbī	arcī	mūr ī
Acc.	clientem	urb em	arcem	mūr em
Voc.	cliēns	urbs	arx	mūs
Abl.	cliente	$\mathrm{urb}\mathbf{e}$	arce	$m\bar{u}r$ e
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	clientēs	urbēs	arc ēs	mūr ēs
Gen.	clientium	urb ium	arcium	mūr ium
Dat.	clientibus	urbibus	arcibus	mūr ibus
Acc.	client ēs , īs	urb ēs , īs	arc ēs , īs	mūr ēs, Is
Voc.	clientēs	urb ēs	arcēs	mūr ēs
Abl.	clientibus	urbibus	arcibus	mūr ibus

¹ Cliëns is for clientis, urbs for urbis, arx for arcis, and mūs for mūsis; see 36, 5, 2), note. Mūs, originally an s-stem, Greek $\mu \hat{\mathbf{v}}_{\mathbf{s}}$, became an i-stem in Latin by assuming i.

² The vowel e is here short before nt, but long before ns; see 16, note 2. Indeed, it seems probable that nt and nd shorten a preceding vowel, as ns lengthens it. See Müller, p. 27; Ritschl, Rhein. Museum, xxxi., p. 488.

³ X in arx=cs, c belonging to the stem, and s being the Nom. suffix.

⁴ Mūris is for mūsis; s changed to r between two vowels, see 31, 1.

- 1. Paradigms.—Observe—
- 1) That the stems are clienti, urbi, arci, and mūri.
- 2) That these nouns are declined in the singular precisely like consonantstems, and in the plural precisely like all other masculine and feminine i-stems.¹
 - 2. This class of i-stems includes—
- Most nouns in ns and rs: 2 cliens, clientis, client; cohors, cohortis, cohort.
- 2) Monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant, and a few in s and x preceded by a vowel: urbs, city; arx, citadel; lis, strife; nox, night.
- 3) Names of nations in ās and īs, or, if plural, in ātēs and ītēs: Arpīnās, pl. Arpīnātēs, an Arpinatian, the Arpinates; Samnīs, pl. Samnītēs, the Samnites.
- Optimātēs, the aristocracy; Penātēs, the household gods, and occasionally other nouns in ās.

Note I.—Carŏ, flesh, has a form in is, carnis (for carinis), from which are formed carnō, carnium, etc.

Note 2.—Pars, part, sometimes has partim in the Accusative.

Note 3.— $R\bar{u}s$, country, sors, lot, supellex, furniture, and a few other words sometimes have the Ablative in \bar{i} .

65. SUMMARY OF I-STEMS.—To I-stems belong—

- 1. All nouns in is and ēs which do not increase in the Genitive; see 62. Here belong also—
 - 1) Names of months in ber (for bris): September, October, etc.; see 62, N.1.
- 2) The following nouns in ber and ter (for bris and tris): imber, storm; linter, boat; üter, leathern sack; venter, belly; generally also Insuber, an Insubrian.
- 2. Neuters in e, al (for āle) and ar (for āre); see 63; also 63, 2, note.
- 3. Many nouns in s and x—especially (1) nouns in ns and rs, and (2) monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant; see 64, 2.

¹ Nouns thus declined are most conveniently treated as i-nouns, though the stem appears to end in a consonant in the Sing., and in i in the Plur. In some of these nouns the stem has lost its final i in the Sing., while in others it ended originally in a consonant, but afterward assumed i in the Plur., at least in certain cases; see 62, I., footnote.

² Some of these often have um in poetry and sometimes even in prose, as $par\bar{e}ns$, parent, generally has,

³ Except (ops) opis and the Greek nouns, gryps, lynx, sphinx.

Namely, faux, glīs, līs, mās, niw, now, os (ossis), vīs, generally fraus and mūs.

66. Special Paradigms.

Sûs, M. & F.,	Bōs, M. & F.,			
swine.	ox, cow.	snow.	old man.	force.
	SI	NGULAR.		
Nom. sūs	bō s ¹	nix	senex	vīs
Gen. suis	bovis	niv is	senis	vīs 2
Dat. sul	bovī	nivī	senī	v1 ²
Acc. suem	bovem	niv em	sen em	vim
Voc. süs	bōs	nix	senex	vīs
Abl. sue	bove	nive	sen e	v 1
	P	LURAL.		
Nom. suēs	bovēs	nivēs	sen ēs	vīr ēs
Gen. su um	(bourm	niv ium	senunu	vīr ium
Dat. { suibus subus	j bā bus¹ l bū bus¹	niv ibus	senibus	vīr ibus
Acc. sues	bov ēs	niv ēs	sen ēs	vīr ēs
Voc. sues	bov ēs	niv ēs	sen ēs	vīr ēs
Abl. { suibus subus	(bõ bus	niv ibus	sen ibus	vīr ibus
aubus (subus) bū bus	111 1 A 1 6 6 13	DULLE NO CE 19	111210413

- 1. The Stems are su; bov; nig (nix=nigs), niv, nivi; sence, sen; vī (sing.), vīri (for vīsi, plur.); sence 31, 1.
- 2. $S\bar{u}s$, and $g_R\bar{u}s$, crane, the only **u** stems in this declension, are declined alike, except in the Dative and Ablative Plural, where $gr\bar{u}s$ is regular: gruibus.
- 3. JUPPITER, Jupiter, is thus declined: Juppiter, Jovis, Jove, Juppiter, Jove. Stems. Juppiter and Jov.
- 4. LOCATIVE.—Many names of towns have a Locative Singular in ī or edenoting the place in which (45, 2). Thus:

Nom.	Karthāgŏ,	Carthage,	Tībur,	Tibur,
Gen.	Karthaginis, of	Carthage,	Tībur is ,	of Tibur,
Dat.	Karthagin , for	Carthage,	Tībur ī ,	for Tibur,
Acc.	Karthāginem,	Carthage,	Tībur,	Tibur,
Voc.	Karthāgŏ, O	Carthage,	Tībur,	O Tibur,
Abl.	Karthägine, from	Carthage,	Tībur e ,	from Tibur,
Loc.	Karthagina or e, at	Carthage.	Tībur ī or e ,	at Tibur.

¹ $B\bar{o}s = \text{bovs}$, bous; $b\bar{o}bus$, $b\bar{u}bus = \text{bovibus}$, boubus.

² The Gen. and Dat. Sing.—v²s, vī—are rare.

⁸ For nigvi, from which nig is formed by first dropping i and then v; see 27, 36. 3, note 1.

⁴ Vi is formed from visi by first dropping i and then s.

67. CASE-SUFFIXES AND CASE-ENDINGS.1

IN			

CONSONANT STEMS.		g. (*	I-Stems.		
MASO. A	ND FEM.	NEUT. M.	ASC. AND FEM.	NEUT.	
Nom.	8,-2	2	is, ēs, s	e,2	
Gen.	is	is	is	is	
Dat.	ī	ī	ī	ī	
Acc.	em	терени	im, em	e,—	
Voc.	S	-	is, ës, s	e,—	
Abl.	е	в	ī, e	ī	
		PLURAL.			
Nom.	ēs	a	ēs	ia	
Gen.	um	um	ium	ium	
Dat.	ibus	ibus	ibus	ibus	
Acc.	ěs	9.	ēs, īs	ia	
Voc.	ēs	a	ēs	ia	
Abl.	ibus	ibus	ibus	ibus	

Note.—The following irregular case-endings occur: 3

- 1. E, for i, in the Dat. Sing.: 4 aere for aeri.
- 2. Eis, for īs, in the Acc. Plur.: cīveis for cīvīs, cīvēs.
- 3. For Greek Endings, see 68.

GREEK NOUNS.

68. Most Greek nouns of the third declension are entirely regular, but a few retain certain peculiarities of the Greek. The following are examples:

	Lampas, F., torch.	Phryx, M. & F., Phrygian.	Hērōs, M., hero.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	lampas	Phryx	hērō s
Gen.	lampadis, os	Phrygis, os	hērō is
Dat.	lampad T , i	Phryg ī , i	hērō T , i
Acc.	lampad em , a	Phryg em, a	hērō em, a
Voc.	lampas	Phryx	hērōs
Abl.	lampade	Phryge	hērō e

¹ On the distinction between Case-Suffixes and Case-Endings, see 46, 1, and 47, note 8.

² The dash denotes that the case-ending is wanting.

³ To these should be added for early Latin-1) us and es in the Gen. Sing.: hominus = hominus; salvites = salvites; 2) va and è in the Abl. Sing.: conventionid = conventione; patrè = patre; 3) va and eis in the Nom. Plur. of i-nouns: fineis, finis = finès. On the Case-Endings of the Third Declension in early Latin, see Wordsworth, pp 68-73; Kühner, I., pp. 173-179.

⁴ This e is generally long.

PLURAL.				
Nom.	lampadēs, es	Phr	hērō ēs, es	
Gen.	lampadum	Phrygum		hērō um
Dat.	lampadibus	Phr	yg ibus	hērōibus
Acc.	lampadēs, as	Phr	yg ēs , as	hērō ēs , as
Voc.	lampadēs, es	Phr	yg ēs , es	hērō ēs , es
Abl.	lampadibus	Phrygibus		hērō ibus
	Pericles, M.,	Paris, M.,	Dīdō, F.,	Orpheus, M.,
	Pericles.	Paris.	Dido.	Orpheus.
		SINGUL	AR.1	
Nom.	Pericl ēs	Paris	Dīdō	Orpheus 2
Gen.	Periclis, 1	Paridis, os	Dīdūs, ōn is	Orph-eos, el, I
Dat.	Periclī, i	Paridī, i	Dīdō, ōnī, ōni	Orph-eī, ei, ī, eō
Acc.	Pericl em, ea, ēn	(Parid em, a (Pari m, in	Dīdō, ōn em	Orphe a , e um
Voc.	Periclēs, es, ē	Pari	$D\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}$	Orpheu
Abl.	Pericle Pericle	Parid e	Dīdō, ōne	Orphe ō

1. Observe that these Paradioms fluctuate in certain cases—(1) between the Latin and the Greek forms: lampadis, os; lampadem, a; hērōēs, as:—(2) between different declensions: Periclēs, between Dec. I., Periclēn, Periclē, Dec. II., Periclē (Gen.), and Dec. III., Periclis, etc.: Orrheus, between Dec. II., Orpheī, Orpheō, etc., and Dec. III., Orpheos, etc.

2. Nouns in ys have Gen. yos, ȳs, Acc. ym, yn: Othrys, Othrym,

Othryn.

- 3. The Vocative Singular drops s—(1) in nouns in eus, ys, and in proper names in $a\bar{a}s$, Gen. $antis: Atl\bar{a}s$, $Atl\bar{a}:$ —(2) generally in nouns in is, and sometimes in other words: Pari.
- 4. In the Genitive Plural, the ending $\bar{o}n$ occurs in a few titles of books: *Metamorphösēs* (title of a poem), *Metamorphöseön*.
- 5. In the Dative and Ablative Plural the ending si, before vowels sin, occurs in poetry: Troades, Troasin.
- 6. A few neuters used only in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative have os in the Singular and ē in the Plural; melos, melē, song.

SYNOPSIS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

I. Nouns ending in a Vowel.

69. Nouns in a:3	Genitive in atis:	Stem in at:
poēma, poem,	poēmatis,	poēmat.

¹ The Plural is of course generally wanting; see 130, 2.

² Eu is a diphthong in the Nom. and Voc.; ei sometimes a diphthong in the Gen and Dat.

³ These are of Greek origin.

70. Nouns in e: Genitive in is: Stem in i:

mare, sea, maris, mari.

71. Nouns in i: Genitive in is: Stem in i:

sināpī, mustard, sināpis, sināpi.

Note.—Many nouns in $\tilde{\imath}$ are indeclinable. Compounds of $mel\tilde{\imath}$ have itis in the Genitive: $oxymel\tilde{\imath}$, oxymelitis, oxymel.

72. Nouns in ő or ô: Genitive in ônis: Stem in ôn: leŏ, lieŏ, leŏn.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in—

- 1. onis:—most national names: Macedo, Macedonis, Macedonian.
- 2. inis: 2—Apollō; homŏ, man; nēmŏ, nobody; turbŏ, whirlwind; and nouns in dŏ and gō: grandŏ, grandinis, hail; virgŏ, virginis, maiden; except—harpagŏ, ōnis; ligŏ, ŏnis; praedŏ, ōnis, also comedŏ, cūdŏ, mangŏ, spadŏ, ūnedŏ, ūdŏ.
- 3. nis:—carō, carnis (for carinis?), flesh; see 64, 2, note 1.
- 4. ēnis: Aniō, Aniēnis, river Anio; Nēriō, Nēriēnis.
- 5. ūs:—a few Greek feminines: Dīdō, Dīdūs; see 68.
- 73. Nouns in y³: Gen. in yis (yos, ȳs): Stem in y: misy, copperas, misyis (yos, ȳs), misy.

II. Nouns ending in a Mute or Liquid.

74. Nouns in c: ālēc, ālēcis, pickle; lāc, lactis,4 milk.

75. Nouns in 1: Genitive in lis: Stem in 1: sõl. sun.

Note.—Fel, fellis, gall; mel, mellis, honey; sāl, salis, salt. On neuters in al, see 63.

76. Nouns in n: Genitive in nis: Stem in n:

paeān, paean, paeānis, paeān. flūmen, stream, flūminis, flūmen, in.

Note 1.-Nouns in en have the variable radical vowel-e, i; see 60, 1, 2).

Note 2.—There are a few Greek words in on, Gen. in onis, ontis, St. in on. ont: aêdôn, aêdonis, nightingale; Xenophôn, Xenophôntis, Xenophon.

77. Nouns in r: Genitive in ris: Stem in r:

carcer, prison, carceris, carcer.

- 1. Nouns in ār, ar: (1) ār, G. āris, St. āri: lār, lāris, house; (2) pār, paris, pair; fār, farris, corn; hēpar, hēpatis, liver. For ar, G. āris, and ar, G aris, see 63.
- Nouns in ter: Gen. in tris: pater, patris, father; except later, lateris, tile; iter, itineris, way; Juppiter, Jovis; and Greek nouns: crāter, crāteris, bowl.

¹ These are of Greek origin.

² Stem in on, in, or oni, ini, ni; see 60, 1, 2).

³ Nouns in y are of Greek origin, and are often indeclinable.

⁴ The only nouns in c.

Note.—Imber and names of months in ber have bris in the Genitive; imber, imbris, shower; September, Septembris, September; see 62, IV., notes 1 and 2.

- 3. Nouns in or: G. ōris, St. ōr: pāstor, pāstōris, shepherd; but a few have G. oris, St. or: arbor, arboris, tree; aequor, sea; marmor, marble. But cor, cordis, heart.
- 4. Four in ur: G. oris, St. or: ebur, ivory; femur, thigh; jecur, liver; rōbur, strength; but femur has also feminis, and jecur, jecinoris, jecineris, and jocineris.
 - 78. Nouns in ut: Genitive in itis: Stem in ut, it: caput, head, capitis, caput, it.

III. Nouns ending in S.

79. Nouns in ās: Genitive in ātis: Stem in āt:

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. aris: -mās, maris, a male; -stem, mas, mari; see 31, 1.
- 2. āsis: -vās, vāsis, vessel.1
- 3. assis: —ās, assis, an as (a coin).
- 4. antis: -- only masculine Greek nouns: adamās, antis, adamant.

Note.—Anas, duck, and neuter Greek nouns in as have atis: anas, anatis. Vas, surety, Arcas, Arcadian, and feminine Greek nouns in as have adis: vas, vadis, lampas, lampadis.²

80. Nouns in ēs: Genitive in is: Stem in i: 3 nūbēs, cloud, nūbis, nūbis,

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ēdis: hērēs, hērēdis, heir; mercēs, reward.
- 2. edis: -pēs, pedis, foot, and its compounds: compēs, edis, a fetter.
- 3. eris :— Cerēs, Cereris,4
- ētis:—quiēs, rest, with compounds, inquiēs, requiēs, and a few Greek words: lebēs, tapēs.
- 5. etis:—abiēs, fir-tree; ariēs, ram; pariēs, wall.

Note.—Bēs, bessis, two-thirds; aes, aeris,4 copper; praes, praedis, surety.

81. Nouns in es: Genitive in itis: Stem in et, it:
mīles, soldier, mīlitis, mīlet, it.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. etis:—interpres, interpreter; seges, crop; teges, covering.
- 2. idis:—obses, hostage; praeses, president; see 57, 2.

¹ $V\bar{a}s$ is the only stem in s which does not change s to r between two vowels; see 61, 1, 3).

² Greek nouns sometimes have ados for adis.

⁸ But see 64, 1.

⁴ See 61, 1, 3).

82. Nouns in is: Genitive in is: Stem in i: avis, bird, avis, avi.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- eris:—cinis, cineris,¹ ashes; cucumis, cucumber; pulvis, dust; vōmis, ploughshare.
- idis:—capis, cup; cassis, helmet; cuspis, spear; lapis, stone; prōmulsis, antepast, and a few Greek words: as tyrannis, idis, tyranny. Sometimes ībis, and tigris.
- 3. inis:—pollis or pollen, flour; sanguis, blood.

Note.—Glis, glīris, dormouse; līs, lītis, strife; šēmis, sēmissis, half an as; Dīs, Dītis; Quirītis; Samnīs, Samnītis.

83. Nouns in ōs:

mōs, custom,

Genitive in ōris:

mōris,

Stem in ōs:

mōs.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- ōtis:—cōs, cōtis, whetstone; dōs, dowry; nepōs, grandson; sacerdōs, priest; and a few Greek words.
- 2. ōdis:—cūstōs, cūstōdis, guardian; see 36, 2.
- 3. ōis:—a few masculine Greek nouns: hērōs, hero; Mīnōs, Trōs.

Note.—Arbās or arbor, arboris, tree; os, ossis, bone; bās, bovis, ox; see 66.

84. Nouns in ūs, Gen. in ūris or ūtis: stem in ūs or ūt.

- ūris:—crūs, leg; jūs, right; jūs, soup; mūs, mouse; pūs, pus; rūs, country; tūs (thūs), incense; tellūs, earth.
- ūtis: juventūs, youth; salūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, servitude; virtūs, virtue; see 36, 2.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ūdis:—incūs, anvil; palūs, marsh; subscūs, dovetail.
- 2. uis:—grūs, gruis, crane; sūs, swine.
- 3. untis:—a few Greek names of places: Trapezūs, untis.
- 4. odis: Greek compounds in pūs: tripūs, tripodis, tripod.

Note.—Fraus, fraudis, fraud; laus, laudis, praise; see 64, 2, 2), foot-note. For Greek nouns in eus, see 68.

85. Nouns in us: Gen. in eris or oris: stem in os.

- 1. eris:—latus, lateris, side: stem, latos. So also: acus, foedus, fūnus, genus, glomus, mūnus, olus, onus, opus, pondus, rūdus, scelus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, Venus, viscus, vulnus.
 - 2. oris:—corpus, corporis, body: stem, corpos.3 So also decus, dedecus,

¹ Stem cinis, ciner for cines with variable vowel i, e; see 24, 1; 31, 1; and 57, 2.

² Greek nouns sometimes have idos or even ios for idis; Salamīs has Salamīnis; Simois, Simoentis.

³ See 61, 1, foot-note.

facinus, facnus, frīgus, lepus, lītus, nemus, pectus, pecus, penus, pīgnus, stercus, tempus, tergus.

Note.—Pecus, pecudis, a head of cattle; Ligus, Liguris, Ligurian; see 31.

86. Nouns in ys: 1 Genitive in yis, yos, $\bar{y}s$: Stem in y: Othrys, Othrys,

Othrys, Othryos, Othry.

87. Nouns in bs: Genitive in bis: Stem in bi: 2

urbs, city, urbis, urbis,

88. Nouns in ms: Genitive in mis: Stem in m: hiems, winter, hiems, hiems.

89. Nouns in eps: Genitive in ipis: Stem in ep, ip. prīnceps, prince, prīncipis, prīncep, ip.

Note.—But auceps, aucupis, fowler. Other nouns in **ps** retain the stem-vowel **un**changed; merops, meropis, bee-eater. Gryps, griffin, has grÿphis.

90. Nouns in s after 1, n, or r: Gen. in tis: Stem in ti:

puls, broth,
mens, mind,
ars, art,
pultis,
mentis,
mentis,
artis,
artis,

Note.—Fröns, frondis, leaf; glāns, glandis, acorn; jūglāns, jūglandis, walnut; see 64, 2.

IV. Nouns ending in X.

91. Nouns in āx: Genitive in ācis: Stem in āc: pāx, peace, pācis, pāc.

Note.—Fax, facis, torch; so also a few Greek nouns. Astyanax, actis; so a few Greek names of men.

92. Nouns in ēx: Genitive in ēcis or ēgis: Stem in ēc. ēg:

1. ēcis:—ālēx, pickle; vervēx, wether.

2. ēgis: -lēx, law; rēx, king, and their compounds.

93. Nouns in ex: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic, ec: jūdex, judge, jūdicis, jūdic, ec.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

1. ecis:—nex, murder; fēnisex, mower; (prex), precis, prayer.

2. egis:—grex, flock; aquilex, water-inspector.

3. igis: - rēmex, rēmigis, rower; see 24, 1.

Note.—Faex, faecis, lees; senex, senis, old man (66); supellex, supellectilis, furniture.

94. Nouns in Ix: Genitive in Icis: Stem in Ic: rādīc, root, rādīcis, rādīcis,

Dissyllables have the stem in b.

¹ These are of Greek origin; a few of them have ydis: chlamydis, cloak.

³ Dissyllables in ns have the stem in t.

95. Nouns in ix: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic: calix, cup, calicis, calic.

Note.—Nix, nivis (66), snow; strix, striqis, screech-owl; a few Gallic names also have the Genitive in iqis: Dumnorix, Orgētorix.

96. Nouns in ox or ox: vox, vocis, voice; nox, noctis, night.

Note.—There are also a few national names in ox, Gen. in ocis or ogis: Cappadox, Cappadoxis; Allobrox, Allobrogis.

97. Nouns in ux: Genitive in ucis: Stem in uc:

Note 1.—Lūx, lūcis, light; Pollūx, Pollūcis, Pollux; frūx, frūgis, fruit.

Note 2.—Greek nouns in $\bar{y}x$ and yx are variously declined: Eryx, Eryx; $bomb\bar{y}x$, $bomb\bar{y}gis$, silkworm; Styx, Stygis, Styx; $cocc\bar{y}x$, $cocc\bar{y}gis$, cuckoo; onyx, onychis, onyx.

98. Nouns in **x** after **n** or **r**: Genitive in **ci**: Stem in **ci**: arx, citadel, arci, arci,

Note 1.—Conjūnx or conjux, conjugis, spouse.

Note 2.—Most nouns in x preceded by n are of Greek origin: lynx, lyncis, lynx; phalanx, phalangis, phalanx.

GENDER IN THIRD DECLENSION.

- 99. Nouns in the third declension ending in
- ŏ, or, ōs, er, and in ēs and es increasing in the Genitive, are masculine: sermŏ, discourse; dolor, pain; mōs, custom; agger, mound; pēs, Genitive pedis, foot.
 - 100. Nouns in O are masculine, except the Feminines, viz. :
 - Nouns in ŏ, Gen. inis, except cardŏ, ōrdŏ, turbŏ, masc., cupīdŏ and margŏ, masc. or fem.
 - 2. Caro, flesh, and the Greek Argo, ēcho, echo.
 - Most abstract and collective nouns in io: ratio, reason; contio, an assembly.
 - 101. Nouns in OR are masculine, except—
 - 1. The Feminine: arbor, tree.
 - 2. The Neuters:—ador, spelt; aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
 - 102. Nouns in OS are masculine, except—
 - 1. The Feminines:—arbos, tree; cos, whetstone; dos, dowry; cos, dawn.
 - 2. The Neuter: -- ōs, mouth.

Note.—0s, bone, and a few Greek words in os are neuter: chaos, chaos.

103. Nouns in ER are masculine, except-

¹ That is, having more syllables in the Genitive than in the Nominative.

- 1. The Feminine:—linter, boat (sometimes masc.).
- The Neuters:—(1) cadāver, corpse; iter, way; tūber, tumor; ūber, udder; vēr, spring; verber, scourge;—(2) botanical names in er, Gen. eris: acer, maple-tree; pāpāver, poppy.
- 104. Nouns in ES and ES increasing in the Genitive are masculine, except—
- The Feminines:—compēs, fetter; mercēs, reward; merges, sheaf; quiēs, rest (with its compounds); seges, crop; teges, mat; sometimes āles, bird, and quadrupēs, quadruped.
- 2. The Neuter: -aes, copper.
- 105. Nouns of the third declension ending in
- ās, as, is, ys, x, in ēs not increasing in the Genitive, and in s preceded by a consonant,

are feminine: aetās, age; nāvis, ship; chlamys, cloak; pāx, peace; nūbēs, cloud; urbs, city.

- 106. Nouns in AS and AS are feminine, except-
- The Masculines:—ās, an as (a coin), vas, surety, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. antis.
- 2. The Neuters:—vās, vessel, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. atis.
- 107. Nouns in IS and YS are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
- Nouns in ālis, ollis, cis, mis, nis, guis, quis: nātālis, birthday; ignis, fire; sanguis, blood. But a few of these are occasionally feminine: canis, amnis, cinis, fīnis, anguis, torquis.
- Axis, axle; būris, ploughtail; eallis, path; ēnsis, sword; lapis, stone; mēnsis, month; orbis, circle; postis, post; pulvis, dust; sentis, brier; torris, brand; vectis, lever; and a few others.
- 3. Names of mountains in ys: Othrys.
- 108. Nouns in X are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
- 1. Greek masculines: corax, raven; thorax, cuirass.
- 2. Nouns in ex and unx; except the feminines: faex, forfex, nex, (prex), supellex.
- 3. Calix, cup; fornix, arch; phoenix, phoenix; trādux, vine-layer, and a few nouns in yx.
 - 4. Sometimes: calx, heel; calx, lime; lynx, lynx.
- 109. Nouns in $\bar{\mathbf{E}}\mathbf{S}$ not increasing in the Genitive are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:

¹ Nouns whose gender is determined by Signification (42) may be exceptions to these rules for gender as determined by Endings. Callis is sometimes feminine.

Acīnacēs, cimeter; sometimes $palumb\bar{e}s$, dove; and $vepr\bar{e}s$, thorn-bush. Note.—For Greek nouns in es, see 111, note.

- 110. Nouns in S preceded by a Consonant are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
 - Dēns, tooth; fons, fountain; mons, mountain; pons, bridge; generally adeps, fat, and rudēns, cable.
 - Some nouns in ns, originally adjectives or participles with a masculine noun understood: oriēns (sōl), east; confluens (amnis), confluence; tridēns (raster), trident; quadrāns (ās), quarter.
 - 3. Chalybs, steel; hydrops, dropsy, and a few other Greek words.
 - Sometimes: forceps, forceps; serpēns, serpent; stirps, stock. Animāns, animal, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.
 - 111. Nouns of the third declension ending in

a, e, ī, y, c, l, n, t, ār, ar, ur, ūs, and us

are neuter: poēma, poem; mare, sea; lāc, milk; animal, animal; carmen, song; caput, head; corpus, body.

Note.—A few Greek nouns in es are also neuter: cacoēthes, desire, passion.

- 112. Nouns in **L**, $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{R}$, and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}$ are neuter, except the *Masculines*, viz.: $M\bar{u}gil$, mullet; $s\bar{a}l$, salt; $s\bar{o}l$, sun; $l\bar{a}r$, hearth; salar, trout.
- 113. Nouns in N are neuter, except-
- The Masculines:—pecten, comb; rēn, kidney; liēn, spleen; and Greek masculines in ān, ēn, īn, ōn: paeān, paean; canōn, rule.
- The Feminines:—aēdōn, nightingale; aleyōn (haleyōn), kingfisher;
 teōn, image; sindōn, muslin.
- 114. Nouns in **UR** are neuter, except the *Masculines*, viz.: *Furfur*, bran; *turtur*, turtle-dove; *vultur*, vulture.
- 115. Nouns in US and US are neuter, except-
- 1. The Masculines:—lepus, hare; mūs, mouse; and Greek nouns in pūs.
- 2. The Feminines:—tellūs, earth; fraus, fraud; laus, praise; and nouns in ūs, Gen. ūtis or ūdis: virtūs, virtue; palūs, marsh.

FOURTH DECLENSION: U NOUNS.

116. Nouns of the fourth declension end in

us-masculine; ū-neuter.

They are declined as follows:

¹ See foot-note, page 47. Sal is sometimes neuter in the singular.

Früctus, fruit. Cornū, horn.

		SINGULAR.	CASE-ENDINGS.			
Nom.	frūct us	corn ū	us	ũ		
Gen.	frūct ūs	corn ūs	$\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{s}$	ūs		
Dat.	frūct uī , ū 1	cornū	uī, ũ ¹	ū		
Acc.	früct um	cornû	um	ū		
Voc.	früct us	corn u	us	ū		
Abl.	frūct ū .	corn ū	ū	ū		
	PLURAL.					
Nom.	früct üs	cornua	ūs .	ua		
Gen.	früct uum	cornuum	uum	uum		
Dat.	frūct ibus	cornibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)		
Acc.	frūct ūs	cornua	ūs	ua		
Voc.	früctūs	cornua	ūs	ua		
Abl.	früctibus	cornibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)		

- 1. The STEM in nouns of the fourth declension ends in u: frūctu, cornu.
- 2. The CASE-ENDINGS here given contain the characteristic **u**, weakened to *i* in *ibus*, but retained in *ubus*; see 22.
 - 117. The following IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS occur: 2
 - 1. Ubus for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural-
 - 1) Regularly in acus, needle; arcus, bow; and tribus, tribe.
- 2) Often in artus, joint; lacus, lake; partus, birth; portus, harbor; specus, caye; and veru, spit.
 - 3) Occasionally in a few other words, as genū, knee; tonitrus, thunder, etc.
- 2. Uis, the uncontracted form for as, in the Genitive: fractuis for fractus.
 - 3. Uos, an old form 5 of the Genitive ending: senātuos, 6 of the senate.
- $118.~{\rm Nouns}$ in us are masculine, those in \bar{u} are neuter, but the following in us are—

¹ Thus $u\tilde{\imath}$ is contracted into \tilde{u} : $fr\tilde{u}ctu\tilde{\imath}$, $fr\tilde{u}ct\tilde{u}$.

² To these should be added the rare endings $\bar{u}d$ for \bar{u} in the Abl. Sing., uus for $\bar{u}s$ in the Gen. Sing., and $u\bar{u}s$ for $\bar{u}s$ in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. See Wordsworth, pp. 60-62.

⁸ Generally plural, limbs.

⁴ It has been already mentioned (47, note 1) that the five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection. The close relationship between the third declension and the fourth will be seen by comparing the declension of $fr\bar{u}ctus$, u-noun of the fourth, with that of $gr\bar{u}s$ (66, 2), a u-noun of the third. In fact, if the old Genitive ending uis had not been contracted into $\bar{u}s$, there would have been no fourth declension whatever. All u-nouns would have belonged to the third declension.

⁵ Compare the Greek Genitive in νος: ἰχθύς, ἰχθύος, fish.

⁶ This was first weakened to *senātuis* (22), and then contracted to *senātūs* (23, 2), the classical form.

Feminine by Exception:—(1) acus, needle; colus, distaff; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, portico; tribus, tribe;—(2) Īdūs, Ides; Quānquātrūs, feast of Minerva; generally penus, store, when of this declension; rarely specus, den;—(3) see 42. II.

Note.—The only neuter nouns in common use are cornū, genū, and verū.1

- 119. SECOND AND FOURTH DECLENSIONS.—Some nouns are partly of the fourth declension and partly of the second.
- 1. Domus, F., house, has a Locative form domi, at home, and is otherwise declined as follows: 2

SI	NGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	domus	domūs
Gen.	domūs	domuum, domõrun
Dat.	domui (domō)	domibus
Acc.	domum	domōs, domūs
Voc.	domus	domūs
Ahl.	domo (domū)	domibus

- 2. Certain names of trees in us, as cupressus, fūcus, laurus, pūnus, though generally of Decl. II., sometimes take those cases of the fourth which end in ūs, us, and ū: N. laurus, G. laurūs, D. laurō, A. laurum, V. laurus, A. laurū, etc. So also colus, distaff.
- 3. A few nouns, especially senātus, senate, and tumultus, tumuk, though regularly of Decl. IV., sometimes take the Genitive ending i of the second; senātī, tumultī.
 - 4. Quercus, oak, regularly of Decl. IV., has quercorum in the Gen. Plur.

FIFTH DECLENSION: E NOUNS.

120. Nouns of the fifth declension end in **ēs**—feminine, and are declined as follows:

	Dies, day.	Rēs, thing.	
		SINGULAR.	CASE-ENDINGS.
Nom.	dies	rēs	ēs
Gen.	di ēī or di ē	r ēī or r ē	ěī, ē
Dat.	di ēī or di ē	r ěī or r ē	ěī, ē
Acc.	diem	rem	em
Voc.	di ēs	rēs	ēs
Abl.	di€	\mathbf{r} .	ē

¹ But neuter forms occur in certain cases of other words. Thus, Dat. pecui, Abl pecui, Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. pecua, from obsolete pecui, cattle; also artua from artus; ossua from obsolete ossui, bone; specua from specus.

² Combining forms of the second declension with those of the fourth.

		PLURAL.	CASE-ENDINGS.	
Nom.	di ēs	rēs	ēs	
Gen.	di ērum	r ērum	ērum	
Dat.	di ēbus	rēbus	ēbus	
Acc.	diēs	rēs	ēs	
Voc.	di ēs	rēs	ēs	
Abl.	di ēbus	rēbus	ēbus	

- 1. The STEM of nouns of the fifth declension ends in $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$: $di\bar{e}$, $r\bar{e}$.
- 2. The Case-Endings here given contain the characteristic $\tilde{\mathbf{e}}$, which appears in all the cases. It is shortened (1) generally in the ending $\check{e}\tilde{\imath}$, when preceded by a consonant, and (2) regularly in the ending em.

Note.—Traces of a Locative in \tilde{e} are preserved in certain phrases found in early Latin, as $di\tilde{e}$ septim \tilde{i} , on the seventh day; $di\tilde{e}$ crūstin \tilde{i} , on the morrow; $di\tilde{e}$ pr \tilde{o} xim \tilde{i} , on the next day. Cotīdi \tilde{e} , hodi \tilde{e} , pr \tilde{i} di \tilde{e} , and the like are doubtless Locatives in origin.

- 121. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur:
- 1. Ī or eī for ĕī in the Gen. and Dat.: aciī for aciēī, of sharpness; diēī for diēī; rēī for rĕī; perniciī for perniciēī, of destruction.
 - 2. Es in the Gen. in early Latin: dies, of a day; rabies, of madness.
 - 122. Defective.—Nouns of this declension want the plural, except 2-
 - 1. Dies and res, complete in all their parts.
- 2. Aciès, sharpness; effigiès, image; faciès, face; seriès, series; speciès, appearance; spès, 3 hope, used in the Sing., and in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur.
- 3. Eluvies, used in the Sing. and in the Nom. Plur., and glacies in the Sing. and in the Acc. Plur.
 - 123. GENDER.—Nouns of the fifth declension are feminine—

Excert diès, day, and meridiès, midday, masculine, though diès is some times feminine in the singular, especially when it means time.

- 124. GENERAL TABLE OF GENDER.
- I. Gender independent of ending. Common to all declensions.

¹ Originally most e-stems appear to have been either a-stems or s-stems. Thus: 1) Most stems in $i\hat{e}$ are modified from $i\hat{a}$: $m\hat{a}teri\hat{a}$, $materi\hat{a}$, Nom. $m\hat{a}teri\hat{e}$ -s, material; see 25, 1, note. with foot-note 6. In this class of words the Gen, and Dat. Sing. are formed from the stem in $i\hat{a}$, not from that in $i\hat{e}s$: $m\hat{a}teriae$, not $m\hat{a}teri\hat{e}\hat{e}$. 2) $Di\hat{e}s$, $fid\hat{e}s$, $pl\hat{e}b\hat{e}s$, and $sp\hat{e}s$ appear to have been s-stems, modified to \hat{e} -stems, as many s-stems in the third declension were modified to i-stems; see 62, I., 1, foot-note.

² A few plural forms in addition to those here given are sometimes cited, but seem not to occur in writers of the classical period.

³ In early Latin spērēs occurs in the Nom. and Acc. Plur., formed from spēs treated to a stem in s. Thus: spēs, spēsēs, spērēs (31, 1).

[•] For exceptions, see 43.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Names of Males, of	Names of Females, of	INDECLINABLE NOUNS, 1 IN-
RIVERS, WINDS, and	Countries, Towns, Isl-	FINITIVES, and CLAUSES
Months.	ANDS, and TREES.	used as Nouns.

II. Gender determined by Nominative ending.2

Masculine. ā3, ēs.	Declension I. Feminine. a, ē.	Neuter.
er, ir, us, os, ōs.	DECLENSION II. DECLENSION III.	um, on.
ŏ, or, ōs, er, ēs and es increasing in the Genitive.	ās, as, is, ys, x, ēs and es not increasing in the Genitive, s preceded by a consonant.	
us.	Declension IV.	ũ.

COMPOUND NOUNS.

125. Compounds present in general no peculiarities of declension. But—

1. If two nominatives unite, they are both declined: $\sqrt[3]{r} \approx p\bar{u}blica = r\bar{c}s \ p\bar{u}blica$, republic, the public thing; $j\bar{u}sj\bar{u}randum = j\bar{u}s \ j\bar{u}randum$, oath.

2. If a nominative unites with an oblique case, only the nominative is declined: ** paterfamiliās = pater familiās (49, 1), or pater familiae, the father of a family.

126. PARADIGMS.

		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	rēspūblica	jūsjūrandum	paterfamiliās
Gen.	rěīpūblicae	jūrisjūrandī	patrisfamiliās
Dat.	rĕīpūblicae	jūrījūrandō	patrīfamiliās
Acc.	rempüblicam	jūsjūrandum	patremfamiliās
Voc.	rēspūblica	jūsjūrandum	paterfamiliās
Abl.	rēpūblicā	jūrejūrandō	patrefamiliās

¹ Except names of persons.

ì

² For exceptions, see under the several declensions.

³ Words thus formed, however, are not compounds in the strict sense of the term see 340, I., note.

		PLURAL.	
Nom.	rēspūblicae	jūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās
Gen.	rērumpūblicārum		patrumfamiliās
Dat.	rēbuspūblicīs		patribusfamiliās
Acc.	rēspūblicās	jūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās
Voc.	rēspūblicae	iūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās
47.7	rahusnühlicis		patribusfamiliās

NOTE 1.—The parts which compose these and similar words are often and perhaps there correctly written separately: $r\bar{e}s$ $p\bar{u}blica$; pater familias or familiae.

Note 2.—Paterfamiliūs sometimes has familiūrum in the plural; patrēsfamiliūrum.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

127. Irregular nouns may be divided into four classes:

I. INDECLINABLE Nouns have but one form for all cases.

II. DEFECTIVE Nouns want certain parts.

III. Heteroclites (heteroclita 1) are partly of one declension and partly of another.

IV. Heterogeneous Nouns (heterogenea²) are partly of one gender and partly of another.

I. INDECLINABLE NOUNS.

128. The Latin has but few indeclinable nouns. The following are the most important:

1. The letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, alpha, beta, etc.

2. Foreign words: Jācōb, Riberī; though foreign words often are declined.

II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

129. Nouns may be defective in Number, in Case, or in both Number and Case.

130. PLURAL WANTING.—Many nouns from the nature of their signification want the plural: $R\bar{o}ma$, Rome; $j\bar{u}stitia$, justice; aurum, gold; $fam\bar{e}s$, hunger; sanguis, blood.

1. The principal nouns of this class are:

1) Most names of persons and places: Cicero, Roma.

2) Abstract Nouns: fides, faith; jūstitia, justice.

3) Names of materials: aurum, gold; ferrum, iron.

4) A few others: merīdiēs, midday; specimen, example; supellex, furni-

ture; ver, spring; vespera, evening, etc.

2. Proper names admit the plural to designate families, classes; names of materials, to designate pieces of the material or articles made of it; and abstract nouns, to designate instances, or kinds, of the quality: Scīpiōnēs, the Scipios; aera, vessels of copper; avāritiae, instances of avarice; odia, hatreds.

3. In the poets, the plural of abstracts occurs in the sense of the singular.

¹ From ετερος, another, and κλίσις, inflection, i. o., of different declensions.

² From ετερος, another, and γένος, gender, i. e., of different genders.

- 131. SINGULAR WANTING.—Many nouns want the singular.
- 1. The most important of these are:
- 1) Certain personal appellatives applicable to classes: mājörēs, forefathers; posterē, descendants; geminē, twins; līberē, children.
- Many names of cities: Athenae, Athens; Thèbae, Thebes; Delphi,
 Delphi.
 - 3) Many names of festivals: Bacchānālia, Olympia, Sāturnālia.
- 4) Arma, arms; dīvitiae, riches; exsequiae, funeral rites; exuviae, spoils; Īdūs, Ides; indūtiae, truce; īnsidiae, ambuscade; mānēs, shades of the dead; mīnae, threats; moenia, walls; mūnia, duties; nūptiae, nuptials; rēliquiae, remains.
- 2. An individual member of a class designated by these plurals may be denoted by unus ex with the plural: unus ex liberis, one of the children, or a child.

Note.—The plural in names of cities may have reference to the several parts of the city, especially as ancient cities were often made up of separate villages. So in the names of festivals, the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.

132. Plural with Change of Meaning.—Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural. Thus:

SINGULAR.

Acdès, temple;
Auxilium, help;
Carcer, prison, barrier;
Castrum, castle, hut;
Comitium, name of a part of the
Roman forum;
Cōpia, plenty, force;
Facultàs, ability;
Fīnis, end;
Fortūna, fortune;
Grātia, gratitude, favor;
Hortus, garden;
Impedimentum, hindrance;
Littera, letter of alphabet;

Lūdus, play, sport;
Mōs, custom;
Nātālis (diēs), birth-day;
Opera, work, service;
Pars, part;
Rōstrum, beak of ship;

Sāl, salt;

PLURAL.

aedēs, (1) temples, (2) a house.¹
auxilia, auxiliaries.
carcerēs, barriers of a race-course.
castra, camp.
comitia, the assembly held in the comitium.

cōpiae, (1) stores, (2) troops.
facultātēs, wealth, means.
finēs, borders, territory.
fortūnae, possessions, wealth.
grātiae, thanks.
hortī, (1) gardens, (2) pleasure-grounds.
impedimenta, (1) hindrances, (2) baggage.
litterae, (1) letters of alphabet, (2) epistle,
writing, letters, literature.
lūdī, (1) plays, (2) public spectacle.
mōrēs, manners, character.
nātālēs, pedigree, parentage.
opērae, workmen.

röstra, (1) beaks, (2) the rostra or tribune in Rome (adorned with beaks).

partes, (1) parts, (2) a party.

sales, witty sayings.

¹ Aedēs and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the plural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.

- 133. Defective in Case.—Some nouns are defective in case:
- 1. In the Nom., Dat., and Voc. Sing.: —, opis, —, opem, —, ope, help; —, vicis, 1 —, vicem, —, vice, change.
 - 2. In the Nom., Gen., and Voc. Sing.: —, preci, precem, —, prece, prayer.
- 3. In the Nom. and Voc. Sing.: —, dapis, dapī, dapēm, —, dapē, food; —, frūgis, frūgī, frūgēm, —, frūgē, fruit.
 - 4. In the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: Most nouns of the fifth Decl.; see 122.

Note.—Many neuters are also defective in the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: $f\bar{u}r$, fel, mel, $p\bar{u}s$, $r\bar{u}s$, $t\bar{u}s$, etc., especially Greek neuters in os, which want these cases also in the singular: epos, melos; also a few nouns of Decl. IV.: metus, situs, etc.

5. In the Gen. Plur.: many nouns otherwise entire, especially monosyllables: nex, pāx, pix; cor, cōs, rōs; sāl, sōl, lūx.

134. Number and Case.—Some nouns want one entire number and certain cases of the other. The following forms occur: fors, forte, chance; luēs, luem, lue, pestilence; diciōnis, diciōnī, diciōnēm, diciōne, sway. Fās, right, and nefās, wrong, are used in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing.; instar, likeness, nihil, nothing, and opus, need, in the Nom. and Acc.; secus, sex, in the Acc. only. Many verbal nouns in ū and a few other words have only the Ablative Singular: jussū, by order; mandātū, by command; rogātū, by request; sponte, by choice, etc.

III. HETEROCLITES.

135. Of Declensions II. and IV. are a few nouns in us; see 119.

136. Of Declensions II. and III. are-

- 1. Jūgerum, an acre; generally of the second Deel. in the Sing., and of the third in the Plur.: jūgerum, jūgerī, plural, jūgera, jūgerum, jūgerībus.
- 2. Vās, a vessel; of the third Deel. in the Sing. and of the second in the Plur.: vās, vāsis; plural, vāsa, vāsērum.
- 3. Plural names of festivals in ālia: Bacchānālia, Sāturnālia; which are regularly of the third Decl., but sometimes form the Gen. Plur. in ōrum of the second. Ancīle, a shield, and a few other words have the same peculiarity.

137. Of Declensions III. and V. are-

- 1. Requies, rest; which is regularly of the third Decl., but also takes the forms requiem and requie of the fifth.
- 2. Famēs, hunger; regularly of the third Decl., except in the Ablative, famē, of the fifth (not fame, of the third).
- 138. FORMS IN ia AND iēs.—Many words of four syllables have one form in ia of Decl. I., and one in iës of Decl. V.: luxuria, luxuriës, luxury; māteria, māteriës, material.
- 139. FORMS IN US AND UM.—Many nouns derived from verbs have one form in us of Decl. IV., and one in um of Decl. II.: cōnātus, cōnātum, attempt; ēventus, ēventum, event.

¹ Defective also in the Gen. Plur.

140. Many words which have but one approved form in prose, admit another in poetry: juventūs (ūtis), youth; poetic, juventa (ae): senectūs (ūtis), old age; poetic, senecta (ae): paupertūs (ātis), poverty; poetic, paupertūs (ēī).

IV. HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS.

141. MASCULINE AND NEUTER.—Some masculines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Joeus, m., jest; plural, jocī, m., joca, n.

Locus, m., place; plural, loci, m., topics, loca, n., places.

142. Feminine and Neuter.—Some feminines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Carbasus, f., linen; plural, carbasī, f., carbasa, n.
Margarīta, f., pearl; plural, margarītae, f., margarīta, n.
Ostrea, f., ostrea, n.

- 143. NEUTER AND MASCULINE OR FEMININE.—Some neuters take in the plural a different gender. Thus:
 - 1. Some neuters become masculine in the plural:

Caelum, n., heaven; plural, caelī, m.

2. Some neuters generally become masculine in the plural, but sometimes remain neuter:

Frēnum, n., bridle; plural, frēnī, m., frēna, n. Rāstrum, n., rake; plural, rāstrī, m., rāstra, n.

3. Some neuters become feminine in the plural:

Epulum, n., feast; plural, epulae, f.

- 144. Forms in us and um.—Some nouns of the second declension have one form in us masculine, and one in um neuter: clipeus, clipeum, shield; commentārius, commentārium, commentary.
- 145. Heterogeneous Heteroclites.—Some heteroclites are also heterogeneous: cōnātus (ūs), cōnātum (ī), effort; menda (ae), mendum (ī), fault.

CHAPTER II.

ADJECTIVES.

146. The adjective is the part of speech which is used to qualify nouns: bonus, good; māgnus, great.

NOTE.—The form of the adjective in Latin depends in part upon the gender of the noun which it qualifies: bonus puer, a good boy; bona puella, a good girl; bonum templum, a good temple. Thus, in the Nom. Sing., bonus is the form of the adjective when used with masculine nouns, bona with feminine, and bonum with neuter.

147. Some adjectives are partly of the first declension and partly of the second, while all the rest are entirely of the third declension.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS: A AND O STEMS.

148. Bonus, good.1	SINGULAR.	
Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. bonus	bona	bonum
Gen. bonī	bonae	bon ī
$Dat.$ bon $ar{oldsymbol{o}}$	bonae	$\mathrm{bon}ar{oldsymbol{o}}$
Acc. bonum	bonam	bon um
Voc. bone	bona	bonum
$Abl.$ bon $oldsymbol{\bar{o}}$	$\mathrm{bon} \boldsymbol{\bar{a}}$	$\mathtt{bon}\boldsymbol{\bar{o}}$
	PLURAL.	
Nom. bonī	bonae	bona
Gen. bon ōrum	bon ārum	bon ōrum
Dat. bonīs	bonīs	bonTs
Acc. bonos	bonās	bona
Voc. bonI	bon ae	bona
Abl. bon īs	bonis	bonīs
149. Liber, free. ²	SINGULAR.	
Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. līber	līber a	līber um
Gen. līberī	līber ae	līber≖
Dat. liberō	līber ae	līber ō
Acc. līber um	līber am	līber um
Voc. līber	līber a	līber um
Abl . līber $oldsymbol{ar{o}}$	līber ā	līber ō
	PLURAL.	
Nom. līberī	līber ae	līber a
Gen, liber örum	līber ārum	līber ōrum
Dat. līber īs	līber īs	līber īs
Acc. līber ōs	līber ās	līber a
Voc. līberī	līber ae	līber a
Abl. līber īs	līber īs	līber īs

¹ Bonus is declined in the Masc. like servus of Decl. II. (51), in the Fem. like mênsa of Decl. II. (48), and in the Neut. like templum of Decl. II. (51). The stems are bono in the Masc, and Neut., and bonā in the Fem.

² Liber is declined in the Masc. like puer (51), and in the Fem. and Neut. like bonus.

150. Aeger, sick.1

		SINGULAR.	
	Masc.	Fem.	NEUT.
Nom.	aeger	aegra	aegr um
Gen.	aegr ī	. aegr ae	aegr ī
Dat.	aegr ō	aegr ae	aegr ō
Acc.	aegr um	aegram	- aegr um
Voc.	aeger	aegra	aegr um
Abl.	aegr ō	aegr ā	aegrō
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	aegr I	aegr ae	aegra
Gen.	aegr ōrum	aegr ārum	aegr ōrum
Dat.	aegrīs	aegr īs	aegr īs
Acc.	aegr ōs	aegr ās	aegra
Voc.	aegr ī	aegr ae	aegra
Abl.	aegr īs	aegr īs	aegr īs

Note.—Most adjectives in er are declined like aeger, but the following in er and ur are declined like liber:

- 1) Asper, rough; lacer, torn; miser, wretched; prosper, prosperous; tener, tender; but asper sometimes drops the e, and dexter, right, sometimes retains it: dexter, dextera, or dextra.
 - 2) Satur, sated; satur, satura, saturum.
 - 3) Compounds in fer and ger: mortifer, deadly; āliger, winged.

151. IRREGULARITIES. — Nine adjectives have in the singular **īus**² in the Genitive and **ī** in the Dative, and are declined as follows:

	Alius,	another.		Sõlus, a	lone.	
			SINGULA	AR.		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	alius 3	alia	aliud 3	sõlus	sõla .	sõlum
Gen.	alīus	alius	alīus 4	sõlīus	sõlīus	sõlīus
Dat.	aliī	aliī	aliī	sõlī	sölī	sölī
Acc.	alium	aliam	aliud	sõlum	sõlam	sõlum
Voc.				sõle	sõla -	sõlum
Abl.	aliō	aliā	aliō .	sōlō	sõlä	sõlō

 $^{^1}$ AEGER is declined in the masculine like ager (51), and in the feminine and neuter like bonus.

² I in \(\tilde{\ell}us\) is often shortened by the poets; regularly so in alter\(\tilde{\ell}us\) in dactylic verse (609).

³ Rarely alis and alid. The same stem appears in ali-quis (190, 2), some one; ali-ter, otherwise.

⁴ For alivus by contraction. Alterius often supplies the place of alius

· PLURAL.						
Nom.	aliī	aliae	alia	sõlī	sõlae	sõla
Gen.	aliōrum	aliārum	aliōrum	sõlõrum	sölärum	sõlõrum
Dat.	aliīs	aliīs	aliīs	sōlīs	sõlīs	sõlis
Acc.	aliös	aliās	alia	sõlõs	söläs	sõla
Voc.				sölī	sõlae	sõla
Abl.	aliīs	aliīs	aliīs	sōlīs	sölīs	sõlīs

1. These nine adjectives are: alius, a, ud, another; nūllus, a, um, no one; sōlus, alone; tōtus, whole; ūllus, any; ūnus,¹ one; alter, -tera, -terum,² the others; uter, -tra, -trum,⁴ which (of two); neuter, -tra, -trum,⁴ neither.

Note 1.—The regular forms occasionally occur in the Gen. and Dat. of some of these adjectives.

Note 2.—Like uter are declined its compounds: uterque, utervīs, uterlibet, utercunque. In alteruter sometimes both parts are declined, as alterius utrīus; and sometimes only the latter, as alterutrīus.

THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I STEMS.

- 152. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided into three classes:
- I. Those which have in the Nominative Singular three different forms—one for each gender.
- II. Those which have two forms—the masculine and feminine being the same.
- III. Those which have but one form—the same for all genders.
- 153. Adjectives of Three Endings in this declension have the stem in i, and are declined as follows:

	Ācer, sharp. ⁵	SINGULAR.	
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	äcer 6	ācris	ācr e
Gen.	ācris	ācris	āer is
Dat.	āerī	āerī	ācrī
Acc.	ācrem	āer em	ã cr e
Voc.	ācer	ācris	ãer e
Abl.	āer ī	ācr ī	 ācrī

¹ See declension, 175.

² Gen. alterius, Dat. alteri; otherwise declined like liber (149).

³ Or one of two, the one.

⁴ Gen. utrīus, Dat. utrī; otherwise like aeger (150). Neuter like uter.

⁵ Ācer is declined like ignis in the Masc. and Fem., and like mare (63) in the Neut, except in the Nom. and Voc. Sing., Masc., and in the Abl. Sing.

⁶ These forms in er are like those in er of Decl. II. in dropping the ending in the Nom, and Voc. Sing. and in developing final r into er: ācer for ācris, stem, ācri.

		PLURAL.	
IM	ASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. ācı	ēs	ācr ēs	ācr ia
Gen. āci	ium	ācr ium	ācrium
Dat. āci	ibus	ācribus	ā ēribus
Acc. āci	ēs, īs	ācr ēs, īs	ācr ia
Voc. ācr	ēs	āer ēs	ācr ia
Abl. ācı	ibus	āer ibus	ācr ibus

NOTE 1 .- Like ACER are declined :

1) Alacer, lively; campester, level; celeber, famous; celer, 1 swift; equester, equestrian; palūster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; puter, putrid; salūber, healthful; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucer, winged.

2) Adjectives in er designating the months: October, bris.2

Note 2.—In the poets and in early Latin the form in er, as ācer, is sometimes feminine, and the form in is, as ācris, is sometimes masculine.

154. Adjectives of Two Endings are declined as follows:

	Trīstis, sad.3		Trīstior, sadder.4	
		SINGULAI	R.	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. and F.	NEUT.
Nom.	trīst is	trīste	trīstior	trīstius
Gen.	trīst is	trīst is	trīstiōr is	trīstiōr is
Dat.	trīstī	trīstī	trīstiōr ī	trīstiōr ī
Acc.	trïstem	trīste	trīstiör em	trīstius
Voc.	trīst is	trīste	tristior	trīstius
Abl.	trīstī	trīst ī	trīstiōr e (1) ⁵	trīstiōre (1)
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	trīst ēs	trīst ia	trīstiōr ēs	trīstiör a
Gen.	trīst ium	trīst ium	trīstiōr um	trīstiōr um
Dat.	trīst ibus	trīst ibus	trīstiōr ibus	trīstiōr ibus
Acc.	trīst ēs , īs	trīst ia	trīstiör ēs (Is)	trīstiōr a
Voc.	trīst ēs	trīst ia	trīstiōr ēs	trīstiōr a
Abl.	trīst ibus	trīst ibus	trīstiōr ibus	trīsti ō r ibus

Note 1.—Like $tr\bar{\imath}stior$, comparatives, as consonant stems, generally have the Abl. Sing. in e, sometimes in $\bar{\imath}$, the Nom. Plur. Neut. in a, and the Gen. Plur. in um. But $compl\bar{u}ris$, several, has Gen. Plur. $compl\bar{u}rium$; Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur. Neut. $compl\bar{u}ra$ or $compl\bar{u}ria$; see $Pl\bar{u}s$, 165.

Note 2.—In poetry, adjectives in is, e, sometimes have the Abl. Sing. in e: $c\bar{o}gn\bar{o}mine$ from $c\bar{o}gn\bar{e}minis$, of the same name.

¹ This retains e in declension: celer, celeris, celere; and has um in the Gen. Plur.

² See also 77, 2, note.

³ Trīstis and trīste are declined like ācris and ācre; the stem is trīsti,

⁴ Trīstior is the comparative (160) of trīstis; the stem was originally trīstiōs, but it has been modified to trīstius (61, 1) and trīstiōr (31).

⁶ Enclosed endings are rare.

155. Adjectives of One Ending generally end in s or x, but sometimes in l or r.

1	56	Andax.	audacious.1
1	. 10	. Auuuaa	concurred to cos.

Fēlīx, happy.1

		SINGULAR.		
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	audāx	audāx	fēlīx	fēlīx
Gen.	audāc is	audāc is	fēlīc is	fēlīc is
Dat.	audāc ī	audāe ī	fēlīc ī	fēlīc ī
Acc.	audāc em	audāx	fēlīc em	fēlīx
Voc.	audāx	audāx	fēlīx	fēlīx
Abl.	audācī (e)	audācī (e)	fēlīc ī (e)	fēlīcī (e)
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	audāc ēs	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs	fēlīc ia
Gen.	audāc ium	audāc ium	fēlīc ium	fēlīc ium
Dat.	audāc ibus	audāc ibus	fēlīc ibus	fēlīc ibus
Acc.	audāc ēs (Is)	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs (īs)	fēlīc ia
Voc.	audāc ēs	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs	fēlīc ia
Abl.	audācibus	audāc ibus	fēlīc ibus	fēlīc ibus

157. Amāns, loving.

M. AND F.

Prūdens, prudent.

NEUT.

M. AND F.

Nom.	amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Gen.	amantis	amantis 2	prüdentis	prüdentis 2
Dat.	amant I	amani ī	prüdentī	prūdent ī
Acc.	amantem	amāns	prüdentem	prūdēns
Voc.	amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Abl.	amante (I)	amante (I)	prūdentī (e)	prūdentī (e)
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	amantēs	amantia	prūdent ēs	prüdent ia
Gen.	amantium	amantium	prūdent ium	prüdentium
Dat.	amantibus	amantibus	prüdentibus	prüdentibus
Acc.	amantēs (īs)	amantia	prūdent ēs (īs)	prūdent ia
Voc.	amantēs	amantia	prūdentēs	prūdent ia
Abl.	amantibus	amantibus	prūdent ibus	prūdentibus

SINGULAR.

NEUT.

Note.—The participle amāns differs in declension from the adjective prādēns only in the Abl. Sing., where the participle usually has the ending e, and the adjective, i.

¹ Observe that $\bar{\imath}$ in the Abl. Sing., and ia, ium, and $\bar{\imath}s$ in the Plur., are the regular case-endings for i-stems; see 62 and 63.

² According to Ritschl, Schmitz, and others, the *e* which is long in *prūdēns* before *ns* is short in all other forms of the word, i. e., before *nt*. In the same manner the *a* which is long in *amāns*, is according to Ritschl short in *amantis*, *amantī*, etc.; see p. 37, footnote 2. See also Schmitz, pp. 3-26; Ritschl, Rhein. Museum, xxxi., p. 488; Müller, p. 27.

Participles used adjectively may of course take $\bar{1}$. A few adjectives have only e in general use:—(1) pauper, paupere, poor; $p\bar{u}bes$, $p\bar{u}bere$, mature;—(2) those in es, G, it is or idis: $\bar{a}les$, $d\bar{e}ses$, $d\bar{e}ses$, $d\bar{e}ses$, $s\bar{o}spes$, superstes; (3) caelebs, compos, impos, princeps.

158.	Vetus, old.		Memor, mind	ful.
		SINGULAR.		
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	vetus	vetus	memor	memor
Gen.	veteris	veteris	memoris	memoris
Dat.	veterT	veterī	memorI	memorī
Acc.	veterem -	vetus	memorem	memor
Voc.	vetus	vetus	memor	memor
Abl.	vetere (1)	vetere (I)	memorī	memorī
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	veter ēs	vetera	memor ēs	
Gen.	veterum ·	veterum	memorum	
Dat.	veteribus	veteribus	memoribus	
Acc.	veteres (Is;	vetera	memor ēs (Is)	
Voc.	veter ēs	vetera	memor ēs	
Abl.	veteribus	veteribus	memoribus	

- 1. NEUTER PLURAL.—Many adjectives like *memor*, from the nature of their signification, want the Neuter Plural; all others have the ending *ia*, as *fèlicia*, *prūdentia*, except *ūber*, *ūbera*, fertile, and *vetus*, *vetera*.
- 2. Genitive Plural.—Most adjectives have ium, but the following have um:
- 1) Adjectives of one ending with only e in the Ablative Singular (157, note): pauper, pauperum.
- 2) Those with the Genitive in eris, oris, uris: vetus, veterum, old; memor, memorum, mindful; cicur, cicurum, tame.
 - 3) Those in ceps: anceps, ancipitum, doubtful.
- 4) Those compounded with substantives which have um: inops (ops, opum), inopum, helpless.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

159. Irregular adjectives may be-

- I. INDECLINABLE: frūgī, frugal, good; nēquam, worthless; mīlle, thousand; see 176.
- II. DEFECTIVE: (cēterus) cētera, cēterum, the other, the rest; (lūdicer) tūdicra, lūdicrum, sportive; (sōns) sontis, guilty; (sōminex) sēminecis, half dead; paucī, ae, a, few, used only in the Plural; see also 158, 1.
- III. HETEROCLITES.—Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in us, a, um, of the first and second declensions, and one in is and e of the third: hilarus and hilaris, joyful; exanimus and exanimis, lifeless.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

- 160. Adjectives have three forms, called the Positive degree, the Comparative, and the Superlative: altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest. These forms denote different degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective.
- 161. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison:
 - I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON—by endings.
 - II. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON—by adverbs.

I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

162. Adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive the endings:

Comparative.

Masc. Fem. Neut. Masc. Fem. Neut.

ior ior ius issimus issima issimum 1

altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest, levis, levior, levissimus, light, lighter, lightest.

Note.-Vowel Stems lose their final vowel: alto, altior, altissimus.

- 163. IRREGULAR SUPERLATIVES.—Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus:
- Those in er add rimus to this ending: \(^1\) \(\tilde{a}eer\), \(\tilde{a}eerrimus\), \(\tilde{a}eerrimus\), sharp.
 Note.—Vetus has veterrimus; m\(\tilde{a}t\)\(\tilde{u}rus\), both \(m\)\(\tilde{a}t\)\(\tilde{u}rrimus\) and \(m\)\(\tilde{u}t\)\(\tilde{u}rissimus\); \(\tilde{a}exter\), \(\tilde{d}exter\), \(\tilde{d}exter\), \(\tilde{d}exter\).
 - 2. Six in ilis add limus to the stem: 1

facilis, difficilis, easy, difficult, similis, dissimilis, like, unlike, gracilis, humilis, slender, low: facilis, facilior, facillimus. Imbecillis has imbecillimus.

3. Four in rus have two irregular superlatives:

exterior, extrēmus and extimus, outward, exterus. īnfimus and imus, lower, inferus, Inferior, superus, superior, suprēmus and summus, upper, posterus, posterior. postrēmus and postumus, next.

¹ The superlative ending is-simus is probably compounded of is, from iōs, the original comparative ending (154, foot-note 4), and simus for timus; iōs-timus = iēs-simus = is-simus. After l and r, the first element is omitted, and s assimilated; facilis, facilismus, facil-limus; ācer, ācer-simus, ācer-rimus; but those in ilis drop the final vowel of the stem. See Bopp, §§ 291-307; Schleicher, pp. 488-494; Roby, p. lxvi.

164. Egēnus, prōvidus, and compounds in dicus, ficus, and volus, are compared with the endings entior and entissimus, as if from forms in ēns:

egēnus,	egentior,	egentissimus,	needy,
providus,	providentior,	providentissimus,	prudent,
maledicus,	maledicentior,	maledicentissimus,	slanderous,
münificus,	munificentior,	mūnificentissimus,	liberal,
benevolus,	benevolentior,	benevolentissimus,	benevolent.

Note.—Mirificissimus occurs as the superlative of mirificus, wonderful.

165. Special Irregularities of Comparison.

bonus,	melior,	optimus,	good,
malus,	pējor,	pessimus,	bad,
mägnus,	mājor,	māximus,	great,
parvus,	minor,	minimus,	small,
multus,	plūs,	plūrimus,	much.

NOTE 1.—Plūs is neuter, and has in the singular only Nom. and Acc. plūs, and Gen. plūris. In the plural it has Nom. and Acc. plūrēs (m. and f.), plūra (n.), Gen. plūrium, Dat and Abl. plūribus.

Note 2.—Dives, frugi, and nequam are thus compared:

dīves,	dīvitior,	dīvitissimus,) dītissimus,	rich,
frūgī,	frügālior,	frūgālissimus,	frugal,
nēquam,	nēquior,	nēquissimus,	worthless.

166. Positive Wanting.

citerior,	citimus,	nearer,	prior, propior, ulterior,	prīmus,	former,
deterior,	dēterrimus,	worse,		prōximus,	nearer,
interior,	intimus,	inner,		ūltimus,	tarther.
ōcior,	ōcissimus,	swifter.		,	, ,

167. Comparative wanting.

- 1. In a few participles used adjectively: meritus, meritissimus, deserving.
- 2. In these adjectives:

dīversus,	dīversissimus,	different, false, renowned,	novus,	novissimus,	new,
falsus,	falsissimus,		sacer,	sacerrimus,	sacred,
inclutus,	inclutissimus,		vetus,	veterrimus,	old.
invītus,	invītissimus,	unwilling,			

Note.—Many participles used adjectively are compared in full: amāns, amantior, amantissimus, loving; doctus, doctior, doctissimus, instructed, learned.

168. SUPERLATIVE WANTING.

- 1. In most verbals in ilis and bilis: docilis, docilior, docile.
- 2. In many adjectives in ālis and īlis: capitālis, capitālior, capital.
- 3. In alacer, alacrior, active; caecus, blind; diùturnus, lasting; longinquus, distant; opīmus, rich; prōclīvis, steep; propînquus, near; salūtāris, salutary, and a few others.
 - 4. Three adjectives supply the superlative thus:

adolēscēns,	adolescentior,	minimus nātū,1	young,
juvenis,	jūnior,	minimus nātū,	young,
senex,	senior,	māximus nātū,	old.

169. WITHOUT TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

- 1. Many adjectives, from the nature of their signification, especially such as denote material, possession, or the relations of place and time: aureus, golden; paternus, paternal; Rōmānus, Roman; aestīvus, of summer.
 - 2. Most adjectives in us preceded by a vowel: idōneus, suitable.
- 3. Many derivatives in ālis, āris, īlis, ulus, icus, īnus, ōrus: mortālis (mors), mortal.
- 4. Albus, white; claudus, lame; fērus, wild; lassus, weary; mīrus, wonderful, and a few others.

II. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON.

- 170. Adjectives which want the terminational comparison, form the comparative and superlative, when their signification requires it, by prefixing the adverbs magis, more, and māxime, most, to the positive: arduus, magis arduus, māxime arduus, arduous.
- 1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: admodum, valdē, oppidē, very; imprīmēs, apprīmē, in the highest degree. Per and prae in composition with adjectives have the force of very: perdifficilis, very difficult; praeclārus, very illustrious.
- 2. Strengthening particles are also sometimes used—(1) With the comparative: etiam, even, multō, longē, much, far: etiam dīligentior, even more diligent; multō dīligentior, much more diligent—(2) With the superlative: multō, longē, much, by far: quam, as possible: multō or longē dīligentissimus, by far the most diligent; quam dīligentissimus, as diligent as possible.

NUMERALS.

- 171. Numerals comprise numeral adjectives and numeral adverbs.²
 - 172. Numeral adjectives comprise three principal classes:
 - 1. CARDINAL NUMBERS: ūnus, one; duo, two.
 - 2. Ordinal Numbers: prīmus, first; secundus, second.
- 3. DISTRIBUTIVES: $singul\bar{\imath}$, one by one; $b\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$, two by two, two each, two apiece.

173. To these may be added—

¹ Smallest or youngest in age. Nātū is sometimes omitted.

² The first ten cardinal numbers, mille, primus, secundus, and semel (once), four-teen words in all, furnish the basis of the Latin numeral system. All other numerals are formed from these either by derivation or by composition.

- 1. Multiplicatives, adjectives in *plex*, Gen. *plicis*, denoting so many fold: *simplex*, single; *duplex*, double; *triplex*, threefold.
- 2. Proportionals, declined like bonus, and denoting so many times as great: duplus, twice as great; triplus, three times as great.

174. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES:

174. IABLE OF HUE	ERAL ADJECTIVES.	
CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.
1. ūnus, ūna, ūnum	prīmus, <i>first</i>	singuli, one by one
2. duo, duae, duo	secundus,4 second	bīnī, two by two
3. trēs, tria	tertius, third	ternī (trīnī)
4. quattuor	quārtus, fourth	quaternī
5. quinque	quīntus, <i>fifth</i>	quīnī
6. sex	sextus	sēnī
7. septem	septimus	septēnī
8. octo	octāvus	octōnī
9. novem	nōnus	novēnī
10. decem	decimus	aēnī
11. ündecim	ŭndecimus	ündēnī
12. duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī
13. tredecim ¹	tertius decimus 5	ternī dēnī
14. quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternī dēnī
15. quindecim	quīntus decimus	quînî dênî
16. sēdecim or sexdecim 1	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17. septendecim ¹	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī
18. duodēvīgintī 2	duodēvīcēsimus ⁶	duodēvīcēnī
19. ūndēvīgintī ²	ūndēvīcēsimus ⁶	ūndēvīcēnī
20. vīgintī	vīcēsimus ⁷	vīcēnī
21. vīgintī ūnus	vīcēsimus prīmus	vīcēni singulī
unus et vīgintī 3	ūnus et vīcēsimus ³	singulī et vīcēnī
22. viginti duo	vīcēsimus secundus	vīcēnī bīnī
duo et viginti	alter et vīcēsimus	bīnī et vīcēnī
30. trīgintā	trīcēsimus ⁷	trīcēnī
40. quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī
50. quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimus	quinquageni
60. sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus	sexägēnī
70. septuāgintā	septuāgēsimus	septuāgēnī
80. octogintā	octōgēsimus	octogēnī

¹ Sometimes with the parts separated : decem et tres; decem et sex, etc.

² Literally two from twenty, one from twenty, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: decem et octo; decem et novem or decem novem; so 28, 29; 38, 39, etc., either by subtraction from trīgintā, etc., or by addition to vīgintī.

 $^{^{3}}$ If the tens precede the units, et is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

⁴ Alter is often used for secundus.

⁵ Decimus, with or without et, may precede: decimus et tertius or decimus tertius

⁶ Sometimes expressed by addition: octāvus decimus and nonus decimus.

⁷ Sometimes written with q: vīgēsimus; trīgēsimus,

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.
90.	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsimus	nōnāgēnī
100.	centum	centēsimus	centēnī
101	centum unus	centēsimus prīmus	centēnī singulī
101.	centum et ūnus 1	centēsimus et prīmus	centeni et singuli
200.	ducenti, ae, a	ducentēsimus	ducēnī
300.	trecentī	trecentēsimus	trecenī
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēsimus	quadringēnī
	quīngentī	quīngentēsimus	quingeni
	sēscentī 2	sēscentēsimus 2	sēscēnī ²
700.	septingentī	septingentēsimus	septingēnī
800.	octingentī	octingentēsimus	octingēnī
	nongenti	nongentėsimus	nongenī
	mīlle	mīllēsimus	singula mīlia 3
,	duo mīlia ³	bis mīllēsimus	bīna mīlia
,	centum mīlia	centies mīllesimus	centēna mīlia
,	deciës centēna	deciēs centiēs mīllēsi-	deciēs centēna mī-
,	mīlia 4	mus	lia

1. Ordinals with pars, part, expressed or understood, may be used to express fractions: tertia pars, a third part, a third; quārta pars, a fourth; luae tertias, two thirds.

Note.—Cardinal numbers with partēs are used in fractions when the denominator arger than the numerator by one: duae partēs, two thirds, trēs partēs, three fourths, etc.

- 2. DISTRIBUTIVES are used-
- 1) To show the *number* of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal *each* or *apiece: ternos dēnārios accēpērunt*, they received *each* three denarii, or three apiece. Hence—
- 2) To express Multiplication: deciës centena milia, ten times a hundred housand, a million.
- 3) Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: vīna castra, two camps. Here for singulī and ternī, ūnī and trīnī are used vīnae litterae, one letter; trīnae litterae, three letters.
- 4) Sometimes of objects spoken of in pairs: $b\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$ scyph $\bar{\imath}$, a pair of goblets; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: $b\bar{\imath}na$ hastilia, two spears.
- 3. Poets use numeral adverbs (181) very freely in compounding numbers: is sex, for duodecim; bis septem, for quattuordecim.
- 4. Sescenti and mille are sometimes used indefinitely for any large numper, as one thousand is used in English.
- ¹ In compounding numbers above 160, units generally follow tens, tens hundreds, etc., is in English; but the connective et is either omitted, or used only between the two lighest denominations: mille centum viginti or mille et centum viginti, 1120.
 - ² Often incorrectly written sexcentī, sexcentēsimus, and sexcēnī.
 - ³ Often written millia. For duo milia, bina milia or bis mille is sometimes used.
- 4 Literally "ten times a hundred thousand"; the table might be carried up to any lesired number by using the proper numeral adverb with centena milia: centies centena milia, 10,000.000; sometimes in such combinations centena milia is understood, and the adverb only is expressed, and sometimes centum milia is used.

DECLENSION OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

175. Ūnus, Duo, and Trēs are declined as follows:

	SING	ULAR.	Unus, one.	DT T	JRAL.		
Nom.		ūna	ünum	ünī	ūnae	ūna	
Gen.	ūnīus	ūnīus	ūnīus	ünörum	ūnārum -	ünörun	
Dat.	ūnī	ūnī	ũnĩ	ūnīs	ūnīs	ünïs	
Acc.	ūnům	ūnam	ũnum	ūnōs	ūnās	ũna	
Voc.	ūne	ūna	ūnum	ünī	ūnae	ūna	
Abl.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō	ūnīs	ūnīs	ūnīs	
	Duo, two. Trēs, three.						
Nom.	duo	duae	duo 1	trēs, m. an	d f.	tria, n.	
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum 2	trium		trium	
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus		tribus	
Acc.	duös, duo	duās	duo	trēs, trīs		tria	
Voc.	duo	duae	duo	trēs		tria	
Abl.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus		tribue	

Note 1.—The plural of $\tilde{u}nus$ in the sense of alone may be used with any noun: $\tilde{u}n\tilde{u}$ $Ubi\tilde{v}$, the Ubii alone; but in the sense of one, it is used only with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: $\tilde{u}na$ castra, one camp; $\tilde{u}nae$ bitterae, one letter.

NOTE 2.-Like duo is declined ambo, both.

Note 3.—Multi, many, and $pl\bar{u}rim\bar{\iota}$, very many, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the singular. But in the poets the singular occurs in the sense of $many\ a: multa\ hostia$, many a victim.

- 176. The Cardinals from quattuor to centum are indeclinable.
- 177. Hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus: ducenti, ae, a.
- 178. Mille as an adjective is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular in the Nominative and Accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of mare (63): milia, milium, milibus.

Note.—With the substantive mille, milia, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the Genitive: mille hominum, a thousand men (of men); but if a declined numeral intervenes it takes the case of that numeral: tria milia trecenti milites, three thousand three hundred soldiers.

179. Ordinals are declined like *bonus*, and distributives like the *plural* of *bonus*, but the latter often have $\bar{u}m$ instead of $\bar{o}rum$ in the Genitive: $b\bar{v}n\bar{u}m$ for $b\bar{v}n\bar{v}rum$.

¹ In the ending o in duo and ambo (175, note 2), we have a remnant of the dual number which has otherwise disappeared from the Latin, though preserved in Greek and Sanskrit. Compare the Sanskrit dva, the Greek $\delta \acute{v}o$, the Latin duo, and the English two.

² Instead of duōrum and duārum, duūm is sometimes used.

³ Rarely in other cases in connection with milium or milibus.

⁴ Generally written with one l: mīlia, but sometimes with two: mīllia.

180. Numeral Symbols:

ARABIC.	ROMAN.	ARABIC.	ROMAN.	ARABIO.	ROMAN.
1.	I.	12.	XII.	50.	L.
2.	II.	13.	XIII.	60.	LX.
3.	III.	14.	XIV.	70.	LXX.
4.	IV.	15.	XV.	80.	LXXX.
5.	V	16.	XVI.	90.	XC.
6.	VI.	17.	XVII.	100.	C.
7.	VII.	18.	XVIII.	200.	CC.
8.	VIII.	19.	XIX.	500.	IO, or D.
9.	IX.	20.	XX.	600.	DC.
10.	X.	30.	XXX.	1,000.	CIO, or M.1
11.	XI.	40.	XL.	10,000.	CCIDD.

- 1. Latin Numeral Symbols are combinations of: I=1; V=5; X=10; L=50; C=100; In or D=500; Ci) or M=1,000.
 - 2. In the Combination of these symbols, except IO, observe-
 - 1) That the repetition of a symbol doubles the value: II = 2; XX = 20.
- 2) That any symbol standing before one of greater value, subtracts its own value, but that after one of greater value, it adds its own value: V = 5; IV = 5 1 = 4; VI = 5 + 1 = 6.
 - 3. In the Combination of IO observe-
- 1) That each O (inverted C) after IO increases the value tenfold: IO = 500; IOO = $500 \times 10 = 5,000$; IOO = $5,000 \times 10 = 50,000$.
- 2) That these numbers are doubled by placing C the same number of times before I as O stands after it: IO = 500; $CIO = 500 \times 2 = 1,000$; $IOO = 5,000 \times 2 = 10,000$.
- 3) That smaller symbols standing after these add their value: IO = 500; IOC = 600; IOCC = 700.

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

181. To numerals belong also numeral adverbs:

1. semel, once	5. quī	nquiēs 3	9.	noviēs
2. bis, twice	6. sex	iēs	10.	decies
3. ter, three times	7. sep	tiēs	11.	ūndeciēs
4. quater	8. octi	ēs	12.	duodeciēs

¹ Thousands are sometimes denoted by a line over the symbol: $\overline{II} = 2,000$; $\overline{V} = 5,000$.

² The origin of these symbols is uncertain. According to Mommsen, I is the outstretched finger; V, the open hand; X, the two hands crossed; L, the open hand like V, but in a different position; CIO is supposed to be a modification of the Greek Φ , not otherwise used by the Romans, afterward changed to M; IO, afterward changed to D, is a part of CIO; C is also supposed to be a modification of the Greek Θ , but it may be the initial letter of centum, as M may be that of $m\bar{c}IIe$.

³ In adverbs formed from cardinal numbers, iês is the approved ending, though iëns often occurs. In adverbs from indefinite numeral adjectives iëns is the approved ending totiëns (from tot), so often; quotiëns (from quot), how often. See Brambach, p. 14.

, (terdecies	20. vicies	200. ducenties
13. terdecies tredecies	21. semel et vīciēs	300. trecenties
14. { quaterdeciēs }	22. bis et vīciēs	400. quadringentië
	30. trīciēs	500. quingenties
15. {quīnquiēsdeciēs quīndeciēs	40. quadrāgiēs	600. sēscentiēs
	50. quīnquāgiēs	700. septingenties
16.{sexiēsdeciēs sēdeciēs	60. sexāgiēs	800. octingentiës
	70. septuāgiēs	900. (noningenties nongenties
17. septiēsdeciēs	80. octōgiēs	inongenties in in in in it is
18. duodēvīciēs octiēsdeciēs	90. nonāgies	1,000. mīlliēs 1
	100. centies	2,000. bis milliës
19. andēvīciēs noviēsdeciēs	101. centiës semel	100,000. centies mīllies
noviēsdeciēs	102. centies bis	1,000,000. mīlliēs mīlliēs

Note 1.—In compounds of units and tens, the unit with et generally precedes, as in the table: $bis\ et\ v\bar{v}ci\bar{e}s$; the tens, however, with or without et, may precede.

the table: vise is vicies; the tens, nowever, with or without et, may precede. Note 2.—Another class of numeral adverbs in um or \tilde{o} is formed from the ordinals: $primum, prim\tilde{o}$, for the first time, in the first place; $tertium, terti\tilde{o}$, for the third time.

CHAPTER III

PRONOUNS.

182. In construction, Pronouns² are used either as Substantives: ego, I, $t\bar{u}$, thou; or as Adjectives: meus, my, tuus, your.

183. Pronouns are divided into six classes:

- 1. Personal Pronouns : $t\bar{u}$, thou.
- 2. Possessive Pronouns: meus, my.
- 3. Demonstrative Pronouns: hīc, this.
- 4. Relative Pronouns: quī, who.
- 5. Interrogative Pronouns: quis, who?
- 6. Indefinite Pronouns: aliquis, some one.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

184. Personal Pronouns, so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, are:

¹ Millies is often used indefinitely like the English a thousand times.

² But in their signification and use, Pronouns differ widely from ordinary substantives and adjectives, as they never name any object, action, or quality, but simply point out its relation to the speaker, or to some other person or thing; see 314, II., with foot-note

⁸ Also called Substantive Pronouns, because they are always used substantively.

Tū, thou.	Suī, of himself, etc.
INGULAR.	
tü	
tuī	suī ¹
tibĭ	sibĭ
tē	sē
tū	
tē ∘ ′	sē
PLURAL.	
vōs	
vestrum 3	ant
vestrī	suf
vōbīs	sibĭ
vōs	sē
võs	
võbîs	รē
	tū tul tibi tē tū tē tv vōs vestrum vōbīs vōs

- 1. The Case-Endings of Pronouns differ considerably from those of Nouns.
- 2. Suī, of himself, etc., is often called the Reflexive pronoun.
- 3. EMPHATIC FORMS in met occur, except in the Gen. Plur.: egomet, I myself; têmet, etc. But the Nom. tū has tūte and tūtemet, not tūmet.
 - 4. REDUPLICATED FORMS.—Sēsē, tětē, mēmē, for sē, tē, mē.
- Ancient and Rare Forms.—Mis for mei; tis for tui; med and mepte for me; ted for te; sed, sepse, for se.
- 6. Cum, when used with the ablative of a Personal Pronoun, is appended to it: mēcum, tēcum.

II. Possessive Pronouns.

185. From Personal pronouns are formed the Possessives:

meus, a, um, my; noster, tra, trum, our; tuus, a, um, thy, your; vester, tra, trum, your; suus, a, um, his, hers, its; suus, a, um, their.

² Eyo has no connection in form with $me\bar{\imath}$, $mih\bar{\imath}$, etc., but it corresponds to the Greek $\hat{\epsilon}\gamma\acute{\omega}\nu$, $\hat{\epsilon}\gamma\acute{\omega}$. The oblique cases of eyo and $t\bar{u}$ in the singular are derived from the Indo-European roots ma and tva. Compare the Accusative Singular of each in—

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	ENGLISH.
mā-m or mā,	μ έ ,	mē,	me.
tvā-m or tvā,	τέ οτ σέ,	tē,	thee.

 $Su\bar{\imath}, sib\bar{\imath}, s\bar{\epsilon},$ in both numbers are formed from the root sva. The origin of the plural forms of ego and $t\bar{\imath}$ is obscure. See Papillon, pp. 142-149; Kühner, I., pp. 378-382.

¹ Of himself, herself, itself. The Nominative is not used.

^{*} Vestrum and vestrī are also written vostrum and vostrī, though less correctly. Meī, tvī, svī, nostrī, and vestrī, are in form strictly Possessives in the Gen. Sing., but by use they have become Personal. Nostrī and vestrī have also become Plural. Thus, memor vestrī, 'mindful of you,' means literally mindful of yours, i. e., of your welfare, interest. Nostrum and vestrum, for nostrūrum and vestrūrum, are also Possessives; see 185.

Note 1.- Possessives are declined as adjectives of the first and second declensions; but meus has in the Vocative Singular Masculine generally $m\tilde{\imath}$, sometimes meus, and in the Genitive Plural sometimes meum instead of $me\tilde{o}rum$.

Note 2.- Emphatic forms in pte and met occur: suapte, suamet.

Note 3.—Other possessives are: (1) cūjus, a, um,² 'whose,' and cūjus, a, um,² 'whose,' declined like bonus, and (2) the Patrials, nostrūs, Genitive ātis, 'of our country,' vestrūs, Genitive ātis, 'of your country,' and cūjūs, Genitive ātis, 'of whose country,' declined as adjectives of Declension III.

III. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

186. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they specify the objects to which they refer, are declined as follows:

I. Hĭc, this.4

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
Nom.	Masc.	Frm. haec	Neur. hŏc	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
	hūjus	hūjus	hūjus ⁵	nı hörum	hae ⁷	haec hōrum
Dat.	huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs
Acc.	hune	hane	hốc 6	hōs	hās	haec
Abl.	hōc	hāe	hōe	hīs	hīs	hīs

II. Iste, that, that of yours; see 450.

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	iste	ista	istud	istī	istae	ista
Gen.	istĭus	istĭus	istĭus ^z	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
Dat.	istī	istī	istī	istīs	istīs	istīs
Acc.	istum	istam	istud 6	istōs	istās	ista
Abl.	istō	istā	istō	istīs	istīs	istīs

- 1 In early Latin tuus is sometimes written tovos, and suus, sovos.
- ² From the relative quī, cūjus (187), also written quōius.
- 3 From the interrogative quis, cājus (188), also written quāius.
- 4 The stem of h̄t̄c is ho, ha, which by the addition of i, another pronominal stem, seen in i-s, 'he,' becomes in certain cases h̄t̄ (for ho-i), hae (for ha-i), as in h̄t̄-c, hae-c. The forms ho, ha, appear in h̄t̄-c, ha-nc. Ancient and rare forms of this pronoun are h̄t̄-c (for h̄t̄c), h̄t̄-ius (for h̄t̄ū)us), hoic, hoice (for huic), hone (for hunc), heis, heisec, h̄t̄-s, h̄t̄-c (for h̄t̄-c, h̄t̄), h̄t̄-b̄-us (for h̄t̄-t̄-c).
- ⁵ The Genitive suffix is us, appended to the stem after the addition of i (foot-note 4): $ho i \cdot us$, hajius (i changed to j between two vowels, 28), $i \cdot to \cdot i \cdot us$, $i \cdot tius$ (i retained after a consonant). The suffix us, originally as, is in origin the same as the suffix is in the third declension. In one the original vowel a is weakened to u, and in the other to i. See Wordsworth, p. 95; Corssen, I., p. 307.

In prose i in the ending ius is generally long.

- e Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns want the Vocative,
- ⁷ Here the form with c, haec, is sometimes used.
- ⁸ The stem of iste (for istus) is isto in the Masc. and Neut., and ista in the Fem. O is weakened to e in iste (24, 1, note) and to u in istu-d. Ancient and rare forms of iste

III. Ille, that, that one, he, is declined like iste; see II. on the preceding page.

IV. Is, he, this, that.2

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	is	ea	id	eī, iī	eae	ea
Gen.	ējus	ējus	ējus	eõrum	eārum	eōrum
Dat.	ĕī	ĕī	ĕī³	eīs, iīs .	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs
Acc.	eum	eam	id 4	eōs	eās	ea
Abl.	eõ	eā	eō ·	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs

V. Ipse, self, he.5

	5	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	ipsĭus	ipsĭus	ipsĭus	ipsõrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
Dat.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī -	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	ipsō	ipsā	ipső	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

VI. Idem, the same.6

are istus (for iste), forms in \(\bar{\epsilon}\), \(ae, \bar{\epsilon}\) (for \(\bar{i}us\)) in the Genitive, and in \(\bar{\epsilon}\), \(ae, \bar{\epsilon}\) (for \(\bar{i}t\)) in the Dat.: \(ist\bar{\epsilon}\) (for \(ist\bar{i}us\)), \(ist\bar{\epsilon}\) (for \(ist\bar{i}t\)), \(istae\) (for \(ist\bar{i}us\)) or \(ist\bar{i}t\)).

- ¹ The stem of ille (for illus) is illo, illa. Ancient and rare forms are (1) illus (for ille), forms in τ̄, αe, τ̄ (for τ̄us) in the Genitive Singular, and in τ̄, αe, τ̄ (for τ̄) in the Dative Singular: illt̄ (for illt̄us), etc.; (2) forms from ollus or olle (for those from ille): ollus, olle, olla, etc.
- 2 The stem of is is i, strengthened in most of its case-forms to eo, ea. Ancient or rare forms of is are, eis (for is); ē-i-ei, ei-ei, i-ei, eae (for Dative Singular ēī); im, em (for eum); e-eis, i-eis, eis (for Nominative Plural eī); ē-i-eis, ei-eis, e-eis, ībus, eābus (for eīs). To these may be added a few rare forms from a root of kindred meaning, so, sa: sum, sam=eum, eam; sōs, sōs=eōs, eās. This root appears in ip-sus, ip-sa, ip-sum. Sī, if, and sī-c, thus, are probably Locatives from this root or from sva, the root of suī (184).
- 3 Sometimes a diphthong in poetry. In the same way the plural forms $e\bar{\imath}$, $i\bar{\imath}$, $e\bar{\imath}s$, $i\bar{\imath}s$, are sometimes monosyllables. Instead of $i\bar{\imath}s$ and $i\bar{\imath}s$, $i\bar{\imath}$ and $i\bar{\imath}s$ are sometimes written.
 - 4 See page 72, foot-note 6.
- by Ipse (for ipsus = i-pe-sus) is compounded of is or its stem i, the intensive particle pe, 'even,' 'indeed,' and the pronominal root so, sa, mentioned in foot-note 2 above. The stem is ipso, ipsa, but forms occur with the first part declined and pse unchanged: eum-pse, eam-pse, etc.; sometimes combined with rê: reāpse = rê-eāpse = rê ipsā, 'in reality.' Ipsus (for ipse) is not uncommon.
- 6 In idem, compounded of is and dem, only the first part is declined. Isdem is shortened to idem, iddem to idem, and m is changed to n before dem (33, 4). In early Latin eisdem and isdem occur for idem; eidem and idem for idem; eisdem and isdem in the Nominative Plural for eidem.

		CTTTCTT . D				
		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	Maso.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	īdem	eadem	idem	∫ eīdem ² (iīdem	eaedem	eadem
Gen.	ējusdem	ējusdem	ējusdem	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundeu
Dat.	ĕīdem.₃	ĕīdem	ĕīdem¹	{ eīsdem } iīsdem	eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem ²
Acc.	eundem	eandem	idem	eösdem	eāsdem	iīsdem eadem
Abl.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	f eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem ² iīsdem

- 1. Hic (for $\hbar i$ -ce) is compounded with the demonstrative particle ce, meaning here. The forms in c have dropped e, while the other forms have dropped the particle entirely. But ce is often retained for emphasis; $\hbar i$ -ce, $\hbar i j$ usce, $\hbar i$ sce, $\hbar i$ runce (m changed to n), $\hbar i$ runc (m changed to m), $\hbar i$ runc (m). Ce, changed to m0, is generally retained before the interrogative m0: $\hbar i$ cine, $\hbar i$ scine.
- 2. ILLÏC AND ISTÏC, 3 also compounded with the particle cc, are declined alike, as follows:

SINGULAR.			2.	PLURAL.		
Nom. Gen.	Masc. illťe illťusce	Fem. illaec illfusce	Neut. illūc (illōc) illīusce 4	Maso. illīc	Fem. illaec	Neut. illaec
Acc.	illīc illunc illōc	illīc illanc illāc	illīc illūc (illōc) illōc	illīsce illōsce illīsce	illīsce illāsce illīsce	illīsce illaec illīsce

- 3. Syncopated Forms, compounded of ecce or ēn, 'lo,' 'see,' and some cases of demonstratives, especially the Accusative of ille and is, occur: eccum for ecce eum; eccos for ecce eōs; ēllum for èn illum; ēllam for èn illam.
- 4. Demonstrative Adjectives: tātis, e, such; tantus, a, um, so great; tot, so many; totus, a, um, so great. Tot is indeclinable; the rest regular.

Note.—For $t\lambda lis$, the Genitive of a demonstrative with $mod\lambda$ (Genitive of $modus_i$ measure, kind) is often used: $h\bar{u}jusmod\lambda$, $\bar{e}jusmod\lambda$, of this kind, such.

IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

187. The Relative qui, 'who,' so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows:

¹ Sometimes a dissyllable.

² Eidem and eisdem are the approved forms. Instead of iidem and iisdem, dissyllables in poetry, idem and isdem are often written.

³ Illic and istic are formed from the stems of ille and iste in the same manner as hio is formed from its stem; see page 72, foot-note 4.

⁴ Observe that ce is retained in full after s, but shortened to c in all other situations.

⁶ The stem of quī is quo, qua, which becomes co, cu in cūjus and cui. Quī and

SINGULAR.				PLURAL.		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
Gen.	cūjus	cūjus	cūjus	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dat.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem 1	quam	quod-	$qu\bar{o}s$	quäs	quae
Abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

1. $Qu\bar{\imath}^2 = qu\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}$, 'with which,' 'wherewith,' is a *Locative* or *Ablative* of the relative $qu\bar{\imath}$.

2. Cum, when used with the Ablative of the relative, is generally appended to it: quibuscum.

3. Quicumque and Quisquis, 'whoever,' are called from their signification general relatives.' Quicumque (quīcumque) is declined like quī. Quisquis is rare except in the forms, quisquis, quidquid (quicquid), quōquō.

Note.—The parts of Quicumque are sometimes separated by one or more words: quā rē cumque.

4. RELATIVE ADJECTIVES: quālis, e, such as; quantus, a, um, so great; quot, as many as; quotus, a, um, of which number; and the double and compound forms: quālisquālis, quāliscumque, etc.

Note.—For Quālis the Genitive of the relative with modī is often used: cājusmodī, of what kind, such as; cājuscumquemodī, cuicuimodī (for cājuscūjusmodī), of whatever kind.

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

188. The Interrogative Pronouns quis and qui, with their compounds, are used in asking questions. They are declined as follows:

quae are formed from quo and qua like $h\tilde{i}$ and hae in $h\tilde{i}$ -c and hae-c from ho and ha; see 186, I., foot-note 4. Ancient or rare forms are quei, quis (for $qu\tilde{i}$), Nom. Sing.; $qu\tilde{o}ius$ (i=j); quoi, cui (for cuiyus, as in $cuimod\tilde{i}=cuyusmod\tilde{i}$), quoiei, quoi (for cui); ques (for $qu\tilde{i}$), Nom. Plur.; quai (for quae), Fem. and Nent. Plur.; queis, $qu\tilde{i}s$ (for quibus).

¹ An Accusative quom, also written quum and cum, formed directly from the stem quo, became the conjunction quom, quum, cum, 'when,' lit. during which, i. e., during which time. Indeed, several conjunctions are in their origin Accusatives of pronouns: quam, 'in what way,' 'how,' is the Accusative of qui; quamquam, 'however much,' the Accusative of quis-quis (187, 3); tum, 'then,' and tam, 'so,' Accusatives of the pronominal stem to, ta, seen in is-tus, is-te, is-ta (186, II., foot-note 8).

² This is an element in quin = qui-ne, 'by which not,' that not,' and in quippe = qui-pe, 'indeed.'

³ Relative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may be made general in signification by taking cumque, like qui-cumque, or by being doubled like quis-quis: qualis-cumque, qualis-qualis, of whatever kind; ubš-cumque, ubi-ubš, wheresoever.

4 The relative $qu\bar{\imath}$, the interrogatives $qu\bar{\imath}s$, $qu\bar{\imath}$, and the indefinites $qu\bar{\imath}s$, $qu\bar{\imath}$, are all formed from the stem quo, qua. The ancient and rare forms are nearly the same in all; see page 74, foot-note 5.

I. Quis, who, which, what?

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL,	
Masc. Nom. quis Gen. cūjus Dat. cui Acc. quem (Abl. quō	Fem. quae cūjus cui quam quā	Neur. quid cūjus cui quid quō	MAsc. quī quōrum quibus quōs quibus	FEM. quae quārum quibus quās quās	NEUT. quae quōrum quibus quae quibus

- II. Quī, which, what? is declined like the relative quī.
- 1. Quis is generally used substantively, and Qui, adjectively. The forms quis and quem are sometimes feminine.
- 2. $Qu\bar{i}$, how? in what way? is a Locative or Ablative of the interrogative quis; see 187, 1.
- 3. Compounds of quis and qui are declined like the simple pronouns: quisnam, quinam, ecquis, etc. But ecquis has sometimes ecqua for ecquae.
- 4. Interrogative Adjectives: qualis, e, what? quantus, a, um, how great? quot, how many? quotus, a, um, of what number? uter, utra, utrum, which (of two)? see 151.

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

- 189. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$, with their compounds.
- 190. Quis, 'any one,' and $qu\bar{\imath}$, 'any one,' 'any,' are the same in form and declension as the interrogatives quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$. But—
- After sī, nisi, nē, and num, the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. have quae or qua: sī quae, sī qua.
 - 2. From quis and quī are formed—

1) The Indefinites:

aliquis,	aliqua,	aliquid or aliquod,1	some, some one.
quispiam,	quaepiam,	quidpiam <i>or</i> quodpiam,	certain, certain one.
quīdam,	quaedam,	quiddam <i>or</i> quoddam,³	
quisquam,	quaequam,	quicquam <i>or</i> quidquam,	

- 1 Aliquis is compounded of ali, seen in ali-us; quisquam, of quis and quam; quisque, of quis and que (from quī); quīvīs, of qui and the verb vīs (293), 'you wish'—hence quī-vīs, 'any you wish'; quīlibet, of quī and the impersonal libet, 'it pleases.'
 - ² Also written quippiam, quoppiam.
 - 3 Quidam changes m to n before d: quendam for quemdam.
 - 4 Quisquam generally wants the Fem. and the Plur.

2) The General Indefinites:

quisque,	quaeque,	quidque	or quodque,1	every, every one.
quīvīs,	quaevīs,	quidvīs	or quodvīs,	any one you please.
quīlibet,	quaelibet,	quidlibet	or quodlibet,	any one you please.

Note 1.—These compounds are generally declined like quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$, but they have in the Neut. Sing, quod used adjectively, and quid substantively.

Note 2.—Aliquis has aliqua instead of aliquae in the Fem. Sing, and Neut. Plur. Aliqui for aliquis occurs.

191. The correspondence which exists between Demonstratives, Relatives, Interrogatives, and Indefinites, is seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

Interrogative.	INDEFINITE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
quis, quī, who? what?2	quis, quī, 3 any one, any; aliquis, 3 some one, some; quīdam, certain one, certain;	hže, this one, this; iste, that one, that; ille, that one, that; is, he, that;	quī,3 who.
uter, which of two?	uter or alteruter, either of two;	uterque, each, both; 5	quī, who.
quālis, of what kind?	quālislibet,3 of any kind;	tālis, such;	quālis,³ as.
quantus, how great?	aliquantus, some- what great; quan- tusvīs, as great as you please;	tantus, so great;	quantus,3 as, as great.
quot, how many?	aliquot, some;	tot, so many;	quot, as, as many.

Note.—Nesciŏ quis, 'I know not who,' has become in effect an indefinite pronoun = $qu\bar{\imath}dam$, 'some one.' So also $nesci\bar{o}$ $qu\bar{\imath}$, 'I know not which' or 'what' = 'some'; $nesci\bar{o}$ quot = aliquot, 'some,' 'a certain number.'

¹ In *ūnus-quisque* both parts are regularly declined.

² Observe that the question quis or quī, who or what? may be answered indefinitely by quis, quī, aliquis, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative, either alone or with a relative, as by hǐc, this one, or hǐc quī, this one who; is, he, or is quī, he who, etc.

³ In form observe that the indefinite is either the same as the interrogative or is a compound of it: quis, ali-quis, $qu\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}$ -dam, and that the relative is usually the same as the interrogative.

⁴ On hic, iste, ille, and is, see 450; 451, 1.

⁵ Or one of the demonstratives, hic, iste, etc.

CHAPTER IV.

VERBS.

- 192. Verbs in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: est, he is; dormit, he is sleeping; legit, he reads.
 - 193. Verbs comprise two principal classes:
- I. TRANSITIVE VERBS admit a direct object of the action: servum verberat, he beats the slave.
- II. Intransitive Verbs do not admit such an object: puer currit, the boy runs.
 - 194. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

I. VOICES.

195. There are two voices:

- I. The Active Voice represents the subject as Acting or Existing: pater filium amat, the father loves his son; est, he is.
- II. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing: $f\bar{\imath}lius\ \bar{a}\ patre\ am\bar{a}tur$, the son is loved by his father.
- 1. Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive; see 301, 1.
- 2. Deponent Verbs³ are Passive in form, but not in sense: loquor, to speak. But see 231.

II. Moods.

196. There are three moods:4

¹ Here servum, 'the slave,' is the object of the action: beats (what?) the slave. The object thus completes the meaning of the verb. He beats is incomplete in sense, but the boy runs is complete, and accordingly does not admit an object.

² Voice shows whether the subject acts (Active Voice), or is acted upon (Passive Voice). Thus, with the Active Voice, 'the father loves his son,' the subject, father, is the one who performs the action, loves, while with the Passive Voice, 'the sor is loved by the father,' the subject, son, merely receives the action, is acted upon, is loved.

³ So called from dēponö, to lay aside, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning. For deponent verbs with the sense of the Greek Middle, see 465.

4 Mood, or Mode, means manner, and relates to the manner in which the meaning of the verb is expressed, as will be seen by observing the force of the several Moods.

I. The INDICATIVE Mood either asserts something as a fact or inquires after the fact:

Legit, HE IS READING. Legitne, IS HE READING? Servius rēgnāvit, Servius REIGNED. Quis ego sum, who am I?

- II. The Subjunctive Mood expresses not an actual fact, but a possibility or conception. It is best translated '—
- 1. Sometimes by the English auxiliaries, 2 let, may, might, should, would:

Amèmus patriam, let us love our country. Sint beātī, may they be happy. Quaerat quispiam, some one may inquire. Hắc nêmo dixerit, no one would say this. Ego cènseam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Enititur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Domum ubi habitāret, lēgit, he selected a house where he might dwell.

2. Sometimes by the English *Indicative*, especially by the Future forms with *shall* and *will*:

Huic cēdāmus, shall we yielp to this one? Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Dubito num dēbeam, I doubt whether I ought. Quaesivit sī licēret, he inquired whether it was lawful.

3. Sometimes by the *Imperative*, especially in prohibitions:

Scribere në pigrëre, do not neglect to write. Në transieris Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro.

4. Sometimes by the English Infinitive: 4

Contendit ut vineat, he strives to conquer. Missi sunt qui consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.

III. The Imperative Mood expresses a command or an entreaty:

Jūstitiam cole, practise justice. Tū në cëde malīs, do not yield to misfortunes.

¹ The use and proper translation of the Subjunctive must be learned from the Syntax. A few illustrations are here given to aid the learner in understanding the Paradigms of the Verbs; see 477-530.

² This is generally the proper translation in simple sentences and in principal clauses (483), and sometimes even in subordinate clauses (490).

⁸ Or, he strives to conquer; see 4 below, with foot-note 4.

⁴ The English has a few remnants of the Subjunctive Mood, which may also be used in translating the Latin Subjunctive: Utinam possem, would that I WERE ABLE.

Observe, however, that the Infinitive here is not the translation of the Subjunctive alone, but of the Subjunctive with its subject and connective: ut vincat, to conquer (lit., that he may conquer); qui consulerent, to consult (lit., who should or would consult).

III. TENSES.

197. There are six tenses:

- I. THREE TENSES FOR INCOMPLETE ACTION:
- 1. Present: amŏ, I love, I am loving.1
- 2. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving, I loved.
- 3. Future: amābō, I shall love, I will love.
- II. THREE TENSES FOR COMPLETED ACTION.
- 1. Perfect: amāvī, I have loved, I loved.
- 2. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.
- 3. Future Perfect: amāverŏ, I shall have loved.

Note 1.—The Latin Perfect sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with have (have loved), and is called the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite; and sometimes to our Imperfect or Past (loved), and is called the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite.³

Note 2.—The Indicative Mood has all the six tenses; the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.⁴

198. Principal and Historical.—Tenses are also distinguished as—

- I. PRINCIPAL OF PRIMARY TENSES:
- 1. Present: amŏ, I love.
- 2. Present Perfect: amāvī, I have loved.3
- 3. Future: amābŏ, I shall love.
- 4. Future Perfect: amāverŏ, I shall have loved.
- II. HISTORICAL OF SECONDARY TENSES:
- 1. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving.
- 2. Historical Perfect: amāvī, I loved.3
- 3. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.

 $^{^1}$ Or, I do love. The English did may also be used in translating the Imperfect and Perfect: I did love.

² Or, I will have loved.

Thus the Latin Perfect combines within itself the force and use of two distinct tenses—the $Perfect\ proper$, seen in the Greek Perfect, and the Aorist, seen in the Greek Aorist: amāvi = $\pi e \phi i \lambda \eta \kappa a$, I have loved; amāvi = $\dot{\epsilon} \phi i \lambda \eta \sigma a$, I loved. The $Historical\ Perfect$ and the Imperfect both represent the action as past, but the former regards it simply as a $historical\ fact-I\ loved$; while the latter regards it $as\ in\ progress-I\ vas\ loving$.

⁴ The nice distinctions of tense have been fully developed only in the Indicative. In the Subjunctive and Imperative, the *time* of the action is less prominent and is less definitely marked.

199. Numbers and Persons.—There are two numbers, Singular and Plural, and three persons, First, Second, and Third.

Note.—The various verbal forms which have voice, mood, tense, number, and person, make up the *finite verb*.

200. Among verbal forms are included the following verbal nouns and adjectives:

I. The Infinitive is a verbal noun.² It is sometimes best translated by the English *Infinitive*, sometimes by the *verbal noun in* Ing, and sometimes by the *Indicative*:

Extre ex urbe volò, I wish to go out of the city. Gestiò scire omnia, I long to know all things. Haec scire juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Peccare licet nemini, to sin is lawful for no one. Vincere 3 scis, you know how to conquer, or you understand conquering. Te dicunt esse 4 sapientem, they say that you are 4 wise. Sentimus calère 4 Ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. 4 See also Syntax, 532-539.

II. The GERUND gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the second declension, used only in the *genitive*, dative, accusative, and ablative singular. It corresponds to the English verbal noun in ING:

Amandī, of loving. Amandī causā, for the sake of loving. Ars vīvendī, the art of living. Cupidus tē audiendī, desirous of hearing you. Ūtilis bibendō, useful for drinking. Ad discendum prōpēnsus, inclined to learn, or to learning. Mēns discendō alitur, the mind is nourished by learning. See also Syntax, 541-544.

III. The Supine gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the fourth declension. It has a form in um and a form in ū:

Amātum, to love, for loving. Amātū, to be loved, for loving, in

¹ As in Nouns; see 44.

² The Infinitive has the characteristics both of verbs and of nouns. As a verb, it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers; as a noun, it is itself governed. In origin it is a verbal noun in the Dative or Locative. See Jolly, pp. 179-200.

³ Observe that the infinitive vincere may be translated by the English infinitive, to

conquer, or by the verbal noun, conquering.

⁴ Observe that the infinitives esse and calere are translated by the indicative are and is (is hot); and that the Λcc. te, the subject of esse, is translated by the Nom. you, the subject of are; and that the Λcc. ignem, the subject of calere, is translated by the Nom. fire, the subject of is.

⁵ Occasionally the Gerund, especially with a preposition, may be thus translated by the English infinitive.

LOVING. Auxilium postulātum vēnit, he came to ask aid. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell. See Syntax, 545-547.

Note.—The Supine in um is an Accusative in form, while the Supine in \tilde{u} may be either a Dative or an Ablative; see 116.

IV. The Participle in Latin, as in English, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective. It is sometimes best translated by the English *Participle* or *Infinitive*, and sometimes by a *Clause*:

Amāns, Loving. Amātūrus, about to love. Amātus, loved. Amandus, deserving to be loved. Platō scribēns mortuus est, Plato died while writing, or while he was writing. Sol oriens diem conficit, the sun rising, or when it rises, 2 causes the day. Rediit belli casum tentātūrus, he returned to try (lit., about to try) the fortune of war. In amīcis elipendis, 3 in selecting friends. See Syntax, 548-550.

Note.—A Latin verb may have four participles: two in the Active, the Present and the Future, amāns, amātūrus; and two in the Passive, the Perfect and the Gerundive, amātus, amandus.

CONJUGATION.

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the stem characteristics or by the endings of the Infinitive, as follows:

	CHARACTERISTICS.	INFINITIVE ENDINGS.
Conj. I.	ā	ā-re
II.	ē -	ē-re
III.	e	e-re
IV.	ī	ī-re

202. PRINCIPAL PARTS.—The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine are called from their importance the *Principal Parts* of the verb.

¹ Participles are verbs in force, but adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs, they govern oblique cases; as adjectives, they agree with nouns.

² Or by its rising.

³ Sometimes called the Future Passive Participle. In agreement with a noun, it is often best translated like a gerund governing that noun; see 544.

⁴ The Four Conjugations are only varieties of one general system of inflection, as the differences between them have been produced in the main by the union of different final letters in the various stems with one general system of suffixes; see Comparative View of Conjugations, 213-216.

Note 1.—In the inflection of verbs it is found convenient to recognize four stems:

- 1) The Verb-Stem, which is the basis of the entire conjugation. This is often called simply the Stem.
- 2) Three Special Stems, the Present Stem, the Perfect Stem, and the Supine Stem.

NOTE 2.—The Special Stems are formed from the Verb-Stem, unless they are identical with it.¹

- 203. The Entire Conjugation of any regular verb may be readily formed from the Principal Parts by means of the proper endings.²
- Sum, I am, is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly, its conjugation, though quite irregular, must be given at the outset. The Principal Parts are—

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. sum, I am, esse, to be, full, I have been.

Note 1.—Sum has no Supine.

Note 2.—Two independent stems or roots 3 are used in the conjugation of this verb, viz.: (1) es, seen in s-um (for es-um) and in es-se, and (2) fu, seen in fu- $\bar{\iota}$.

- ¹ For the treatment of Stems, see 249-256. In many verbs the stem is itself derived from a more primitive form called a *Root*. For the distinction between *roots* and *stems*, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 313-318.
- ² In the Paradigms of regular verbs, the endings which distinguish the various forms are separately indicated, and should be carefully noticed. In the parts derived from the present stem (222, I.) each ending contains the characteristic vowel.
- ³ The forms of irregular verbs are often derived from different roots. Thus in English, am, was, been; go, went, gone. Indeed, the identical roots used in the conjugation of sum are in constant use in our ordinary speech. The root es, Greek es, originally as, is seen in am (for as-mi), art (for as-t), are (for as-e); the root fu, Greek ϕv , originally bhu, is seen in be (for bhe), been. The close relationship existing between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English is seen in the following comparative forms; eo-o-o is Homeric, and e-vri Doric:

Sanskrit.	GREEK.	LATIN.	ENGLISH.
as-mi	<i>ϵ</i> ἰ-μί	8-um	a-m
as-i	ἐσ-σί	es	ar-t
as-ti	ἐσ-τί	es-t	is
s-mas	ἐσ-μέν for ἐσ-μές	s-umus	ar-e
s-tha	ểσ-τέ	es-tis	ar-e
s-anti	ἐ-ντί for ἐσ-ντί	s-unt	ar-e

Every verbal form is thus made by appending to the stem, or root, a pronominal ending meaning I, thou, he, etc. Thus mi, seen in the English me, means I. It is retained in as-mi and $ei\text{-}\mu i$, but shortened to m in s-u-m and a-m. Ti, meaning he, is preserved in as-ti and $ei\sigma\text{-}\tau i$, but shortened to t in es-t and lost in is. The stem also undergoes various changes: in Sanskrit it is as, sometimes shortened to s; in Greek es, sometimes shortened to es; in Latin es, sometimes shortened to es, as in Sanskrit; in English es, as, or es.

PRES. IND.

ful,

fuit.

fuistī.

204. Sum, I am.—Stems, es, fu.

PRES. INF.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PERF. IND.

fuimus.

fu**ērunt**,

fuistis,

we have been,

you have been,

they have been.

SUPINE 1

sum,	es se ,	fu ī ,
	In	DICATIVE MOOD.
sum, ² es, est,	SINGULAR. I am, thou art, ³ he is;	Present Tense. Sumus, we are, estis, you are, sunt, they are.
		IMPERFECT.
eram, erās, erat,	I was, thou wast, ⁸ he was;	er āmus , we were, er ātis , you were, er ant , they were.
		FUTURE.
er ŏ , ⁴ er is , er it ,	I shall be, ⁵ thou wilt be, he will be;	erimus, we shall be, eritis, you will be, erunt, they will be.
		Perfect.

PLUPERFECT.

fueram, I had been,	fu erāmus , we had been,
fuerās, thou hadst been,	fuerātis, you had been,
fuerat, he had been;	fuerant, they had been.

FUTURE PERFECT.

fu erŏ ,	I shall have been,	fuerimus,	we shall have been,
fu er ĭs,	thou wilt have been,		you will have been,
fuerit,	he will have been;	fuerint,	they will have been.

¹ The Supine is wanting.

I have been,5

he has been :

thou hast been,

² Sum is for esum, eram for esam. Whenever s of the stem es comes between two vowels, e is dropped, as in sum, sunt, or s is changed to r, as in eram, er \check{o} ; see 31, 1. The pupil will observe that the endings which are added to the roots es and fu are distinguished by the type.

³ Or you are, and in the Imperfect, you were; thou is confined mostly to solemn discourse.

⁴ In verbs, final o, marked ŏ, is generally long.

⁵ Or, Future, I will be; Perfect, I was; see 197, note 1.

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SUBJUNCTIVE.

	SII	NGULAR. PRES	ENT.	LURAL.		
sim,	m	ay I be,1	sīmus,	let us be,		
sīs,		ayst thou be,2	sītis,	be ye, may you be,		
sit,	lei	t him be, may he be;	sint,	let them be.		
		IMPER	FECT.			
essem	1, I	should be,1	es sēmus ,	we should be,		
essēs,	, th	ou wouldst be,	es sētis ,	you would be,		
esset,	h	e would be;	es sent ,	they would be.		
		Perf	ECT.			
fueri	m, I	may have been,1	fu eržmus ,	we may have been,		
fueri		iou mayst have been,	fu erĭtis ,	you may have been,		
fu eri t	t, h	e may have been;	fu erint ,	they may have been.		
		PLUPE	RFECT.			
fuisse	em, I	should have been,	fuissēmus,	we should have been,		
		hou wouldst have been,	fuissētis,	you would have been		
		e would have been;	fu issent ,	they would have been		
IMPERATIVE.						
Prez. es.	, be	e thou,	este,	be ye.		
Fut. es	t ŏ. <i>tl</i>	hou shalt be,3	es tōte ,	ye shall be,		
		e shall be; 3	suntŏ,	they shall be.		

INFINITIVE.

Pres. esse, to be.

Perf. fuisse, to have been.

Fut. futurus esse,4 to be a

futurus esse,4 to be about to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Fut. futurus,4 about to be.

- 1. In the Paradigm all the forms beginning with e or s are from the stem es; all others from the stem fu.5
- 2. Rare Forms:—forem, fores, foret, forent, fore, for essem, esses, esset, essent, futurus esse; siem, sies, siet, sient, or fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant, for sim, vīs, sit, sint.

- ² Or be thou, or may you be.
- 3 The Fut. may also be rendered like the Pres., or with let: be thou; let him be.
- 4 Futurus is declined like bonus. So in the Infinitive: futurus, a, um esse.

¹ On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II., and remember that it is often best rendered by the Indicative. Thus, sim may often be rendered I am, and fuerim, I have been.

⁵ Es and fu are roots as well as seems. As the basis of this paradigm they are properly stems, but as they are not derived from more primitive forms, they are in themselves roots.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

205. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amo, I love.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, amā.1

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Supine. am**ŏ**, am**āre**, am**āvī**, am**ātum**,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

sı	NGULAR. PRESER	NT TENSE.	URAL.
am ŏ ,¹	I love,2	am āmus ,	we love.
am ās ,	you love,3	am ātis ,	you love,
amat,	he loves;	amant,	they love.
	Імр	ERFECT.	
am ābam ,	I was loving,	am ābāmus ,	we were loving,
am ābās ,	you were loving,	amābātis,	you were loving,
am ābat ,	he was loving;	am ābant ,	they were loving.
	Fu	TURE.	1
am ābō ,	I shall love,4	amābimus,	we shall love,
amābis,	you will love,	amābitis,	you will love.
am ābit ,	he will love;	amābunt,	they will love.
	PE	RFECT.	
amāv ī ,	I have loved, ⁵	amāvimus,	we have loved.
amāvistī,	you have loved,	amāvistis,	you have loved.
amāvit,	he has loved;	amāvērunt. ā	re, they have loved

PLUPERFECT.

amāv eram ,	I had loved,	amāv erāmus	, we had loved,
amāv erās ,	you had loved,	amāverātis,	
amāverat,	he had loved;	amāverant,	they had loved.

FUTURE PERFECT.

amāv er ō,	I shall have loved,4	amāverīmus,	we shall have loved,
amāv erīs ,			
amāverit,	he will have loved;	amāv erint ,	they will have loved.

¹ The final \bar{a} of the stem disappears in $am\check{o}$ for $ama-\check{o}$, amem, $am\check{e}s$, etc., for ama-im, ama-is, etc. Also in the Pass. in amor for ama-or, amer, etc., for ama-ir, etc.; see 23; 27. Final o, marked \check{o} , is generally long.

² Or I am loving, I do love. So in the Imperfect, I loved, I was loving, I did love ³ Or thou lovest. So in the other tenses, thou wast loving, thou wilt love, etc.

⁴ Or I will love. So in the Future Perfect, I shall have loved or I will have loved.

⁶ Or I loved; see 197, note 1.

SINGULAR.	PRESENT.	PLURAL.
may I love,1	am ēmus ,	let us love,
may you love,	amētis,	may you love
lot him love;	ament,	let them love.

IMPERFECT.

amärem,	I should love,	am ārēmus ,	we should love,
am ārēs ,	you would love,	am ārētis ,	you would love,
am āret ,	he would love;	am ārent ,	they would love.

PERFECT.

amāv erim ,	I may have loved,2	amāv erīmus .	we may have loved,
amāv er ĭs,	you may have loved,	amāv erītis ,	you may have loved,
amāverit,	he may have loved;	amāverint,	they may have loved.

PLUPERFECT.

amāvissem,	I should have loved,	amāvissēmu	s, we should have loved,
amāvissēs,	you would have loved,	amāvissētis,	you would have loved,
amāvisset,	he would have loved;	amāvissent,	they would have loved.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	amā,	love thou;	am āte ,	love ye.
Fut.	,	thou shalt love, he shall love;	am ātōte , am antō ,	ye shall love, they shall love.

Infinitive.			PARTICIPLE.		
Pres.	amāre, to love.	Pres.	amāns,4	loving.	
	amāvisse, to have loved.				
Fut.	amātūrus 3 esse, to be about	Fut.	amāt ūrus ,3	about to love.	
	to love				

	am andī ,	of loving,			
Dat.	am andō ,	for loving,			
Acc.	amandum,	loving,	Acc.	amāt um ,	to love,
437	omanda	hu lowing	471	amātīji	to love be loved

SUPINE.

GERUND.

amem, amēs,

¹ On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

² Often best rendered I have loved. So in the Pluperfect, I had loved; see 196, IL

³ Decline like bonus, 148.

⁴ For declension, see 157.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

206. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, amā.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. am**ātus sum.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. I am loved.

singular. amor amāris, or re amātur

amābar

amābātur

PLURAL, am**āmur** am**āminī** am**antur**

IMPERFECT.

I was loved.

am**ābāmur** am**ābāminī** am**ābantur**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be loved

amābor amāberis, *or* re amābitur

amābāris, or re

amābimur amābiminī amābuntur

PERFECT.

I have been loved or I was loved.

amātus sum ¹ amātus es amātus est amātī sumus amātī estis amātī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been loved.

amātus eram ¹ amātus erās amātus erat

amātī erāmus amātī erātis amātī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been loved.

amātus eris amātus eris amātus erit amātī erimus amātī eritis amātī erunt

Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc.: amātus fui for amātus sum. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.: also fuero, etc., for ero, etc.

PRESENT.

May I be loved, let him be loved.1

singular.

amer amēmur

amēris, or re amēminī

amētur amentur

IMPERFECT.

I should be loved, he would be loved.1

amārer amārēmur amārēris, or re amārēminī amārētur amārentur

PERFECT.

I may have been loved, or I have been loved.1

amātus sim 2 amātī sīmus amātus sīs amātī sītis amātus sit amātī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been loved, he would have been loved.1

amātus essem² amātī essēmus amātus essēs amātī essētis amātus esset amātī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amare, be thou loved;
Fut. amaror, thou shalt be loved;
amaror, he shall be loved;

amāminī, be ye loved.

amantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amari, to be loved.

Perf. amātus esse,2 to have been loved.

Fut. amatum IrI, to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. amātus, having been lovea.

Ger. 3 amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

² Fuerim, fueris, etc., are sometimes used for sim, sis, etc.—So also fuissem, fuisses, etc., for essem, esses, etc.: rarely fuisse for esse.

³ Ger. = Gerundive; see 200, IV., note.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E VERBS.

207. ACTIVE VOICE.—Moneŏ, I advise.

VERB STEM, mon, moni; PRESENT STEM, monē.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf.

PERF. IND.

SUPINE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular, moneš monēs monet I advise.

PLURAL. monēmus monētis monent

IMPERFECT.

I was advising, or I advised.

monēbam monēbās monēbat

monēbāmus monēbātis monēbant

FITTIRE

I shall or will advise.

monēbis monēbis monēbit

mon**ēbimus** mon**ēbitis** mon**ēbunt**

PERFECT.

I have advised, or I advised.

monuisti monuisti monuist monuimus monuistis monuērunt, or ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had advised.

monu**eram** monu**erās** monu**erat**

monueramus monueratis monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have advised.

monuerăs monuerit monuerimus monueritis monuerint

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.1

PLURAL. SINGULAR. moneāmus moneam moneātis moneas moneant moneat

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

mon**ērēmus** monerem monērētis monērēs mon**ërent** monēret

PERFECT.

I may have advised, or I have advised.1

monu**erimus** monuerim monueritis monu**er**ĭs monuerint monuerit

PLUPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised.2

monu**issēmus** monuissem monuissētis monuissēs monuissent monuisset

IMPERATIVE.

advise ye. | monēte. advise thou; Pres. mone. Fut. moneto, thou shalt advise, monetote, ye shall advise, monento, they shall advise. monēto, he shall advise;

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monere, to advise. Pres. monens, advising. Perf. monuisse, to have advised.

Fut. moniturus, about to advise. Fut. moniturus esse, to be about to advise.

GERUND.

Gen. monendi, of advising, for advising, Dat. monendo, Acc. monendum, advising, by advising.

Abl. monendo,

SUPINE.

PARTICIPLE.

Acc. monitum, to advise,

Abl. monita, to advise, be advised.

But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

² The Pluperfect, like the Perfect, is often rendered by the Indicative: I had advised, you had advised, etc.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E VERBS.

208. PASSIVE VOICE.—Moneor, I am advised.

VERB STEM, mon, moni; PRESENT STEM, monē.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

monētur

Pres. Inf.

PERF. IND.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

mon**eor** mon**ēris**, or re I am advised.

PLURAL, monēmur monēminī monentur

IMPERFECT.

I was advised.

mon**ēbar** mon**ēbāris**, *or* re mon**ēbātu**r

monēbāmur monēbāminī monēbantur

FUTURE.

I shall or will be advised.

mon**ēbor** mon**ēberis**, or re mon**ēbitur**

monēbimur monēbiminī monēbuntur

PERFECT.

I have been advised, I was advised.

monitus es monitus es monitus est monitī sumus monitī estis monitī sunt

Pluperfect.

I had been advised.

monitus eram ¹
monitus erās
monitus erat

monitī erāmus monitī erātis monitī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been advised.

monitus eră ¹
monitus eris
monitus erit

monitī erimus monitī eritis monitī erunt

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR.

moneāris, or re

PLURAL.

monear '

mon**eāmur** moneāminī

moneātur

moneantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised.

monerer monērēris, or re

moneretur

monērēmur mon**ērēminī** monērentur

PERFECT.

I may have been advised, or I have been advised.

monitus sim 1 monitus sīs monitus sit

monitī sīmus monity stris monits sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been advised, he would have been advised.

monitus essem 1 monitus essēs monitus esset

moniti essemus monitī essētis monitī essent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monere, be thou advised; | monemini, be ye advised. Fut. monetor, thou shalt be ad-

vised.

monetor, he shall be advised; monentor, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. moneri, to be advised.

Perf. monitus esse, to have been | Perf. monitus, advised advised.

Fut. monitum IrI, to be about to Ger. monendus, to be advised, debe advised.

serving to be advised.

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

² Or I had been advised, you had been advised, etc.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS.

209. ACTIVE VOICE.—Regŏ, I rule.

VERB STEM, reg; PRESENT STEM, rege.1

	FAINCIPAL	L PARTS.	
Pres. Ind.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUPINE.
reg ō ,	reg ere ,	rēxī,2	rēc tum. 2
	Indicativ	E MOOD.	
	Present	TENSE	
	Irv	ile.	
SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
reg ō	1	regimus	,
regis		regitis	
regit		regunt	
	IMPER	FECT.	

I was ruling, or I ruled.

regēbam
regēbās
regēbās
regēbat
regēbat

FUTURE.

I shall or will rule,

regām regēmus
regēs regētis
reget Perfect.

I have ruled, or I ruled.

rēxī rēximus rēx**ist**ī rēx**istis** rēx**it** rēx**ērunt**, *or* **ēro**

PLUPERFECT.

I had ruled.

rēxeram rēxerāmus rēxerās rēxerātis rēxerat rēxerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have ruled.

rēxerō rēxerīmus rēxerīs rēxerītis rēxerit rēxerint

The characteristic is a variable vowel—ŏ, u, e, i: regŏ, regunt, regere, regis; Curtus calls it the thematic vowel; see Curtius, I., p. 199, but on ŏ, see also Meyer, 441.
See 254; 30, 33, 1.

PRESENT.

I RESENT.

	мау	1	ruie,	iei	TUTTE	rute.
SINGULAR.						PLURAL.
regam				1		reg āmu
regās						reg ātis
regat				-		regant

IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

reg erēmus
reg erētis
regerent

PERFECT.

I may have ruled, or I have ruled.

rēx erim	rēxerīmus
rēx erĭs	rēx erītis
rēxerit	rëx erint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem		rēxi	ssēmus
rēxissēs	4	rēxi	ssētis
rēxisset		rēxi	ssent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres,	rege,	rule thou;	regite,	rule ye.
Fut.	0 ,	thou shalt rule, he shall rule;	,	ye shall rule, they shall rule.
	108200,	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	,	cross crosses resect

Infinitive. Participle.

Pres.	reg ere ,	to rule.			Pres.	reg ēns ,	ruling.	
Perf.	rēxisse,	to have a	ruled.					
Dark		0000	to he	ahous	Thet	which the warmer	about to a	

GERUND.

tārus esse, to be about Fut. rēctārus, about to rule

SUPINE.

Gen.	reg endī ,	of ruling,						
Dat.	regendō,	for ruling,						
Acc.	regendum,	ruling,	Acc.	rēctum,	to	rule,		
Abl.	regendő.	bu rulina.	Abl.	rēct ū .	to	rule.	be	ruled

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS.

210. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

VERB STEM, reg; PRESENT STEM, rege.1

P	BIN	CIP	AT.	PA	RTS.

Pres. Ind

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. rēc**tus¹ sum.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

regeris, or re regitur I am ruled.

PLURAL, regimur regimini reguntur

IMPERFECT.

I was ruled.

reg**ēbar** reg**ēbāris**, *or* **re** reg**ēbātur** reg**ēbāmur** reg**ēbāminī** reg**ēbantur**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be ruled.

reg**ar** reg**ēris**, *or* **re** reg**ētur** reg**ēmur** reg**ēminī** reg**entur**

Perfect.

I have been ruled, or I was ruled.

rēctus sum² rēctus es rēctus est rēctī sumus rēctī estis rēctī sunt

Pluperfect. I had been ruled.

rēctus eram² rēctus erās rēctus erat rēct**ī erāmus** rēct**ī erātis** rēct**ī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been ruled.

rēctus erö² rēctus eris rēctus erit rēctī erimus rēctī eritis rēctī erunt

¹ See 209, foot-notes.

² See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled.

SINGULAR. regar reg**āris**, or re reg**ātur**

PLURAL. regāmur regamini regantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

regerer regerēris, or re regerētur

regerēmur reg**erēminī** regerentur

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled, or I have been ruled.

rēctus sim 1 rēctus sīs rēctus sit

rēctī sīmus rēctī sītis rēctī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled.

rēctus essem 1 rēctus essēs rēctus esset

rēctī essēmus rēctī essētis rēctī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled; Fut.

regiminī, be ye ruled.

regitor, thou shalt be ruled, regitor, he shall be ruled;

reguntor, they shall be ruled.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regī, to be ruled.

Perf. rectus esse,1 to have been | Perf. rectus, ruled. ruled.

Fut. rectum IrI, to be about to be Ger. regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled.

ruled.

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

211. ACTIVE VOICE.—Audio, I hear.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audi.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. aud**iŏ**,

Pres. Inf.

PERF. IND.

Supine.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. aud**ið** audīs aud**it** I hear. PLURAL, audīmus audītis audiunt

IMPERFECT.

I was hearing, or I heard.

audiēbam audiēbās audiēbat audiēbāmus audiēbātis audiēbant

FUTURE.

I shall or will hear.

audiam audiēs audiet audiēmus audiētis audient

PERFECT.

I have heard, or I heard.

audīvī audīvistī audīvit audīvimus audīvistis audīvērunt, or ēre

Pluperfect. I had heard.

audīv**eram** audīv**erās** audīv**erat** audīv**erāmus** audīv**erātis** audīv**erant**

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have heard.

audīverš audīveris audīv**erīmus** audīv**erītis** audīv**erint**

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear.1

PLURAL. SINGULAR. audiam aud**iāmus** audiātis andias audiant audiat

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear.

audīrem audīrēmus audīrētis and Tres audīret audirent

Perfect.

I may have heard, or I have heard.

audīv**erīmus** audiverim audīverīs audīverītis audiverit audiverint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audīvissem audīvissēmus audīvissētis audīvissēs audīvissent audīvisset

IMPERATIVE.

| audīte, hear ye. Pres. aud T. hear thou; | audītote, ye shall hear, Fut. audīto, thou shalt hear, audīto, he shall hear; audiunto, they shall hear.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE. Pres. audire, to hear. Pres. audiens. hearing. Perf. audīvisse, to have heard.

Fut. audītūrus esse, to be about Fut. audītūrus, about to hear. to hear.

GERUND.

of hearing, Gen. audiendi. for hearing, Dat. audiendo.

Acc. audītum, to hear, Acc. audiendum, hearing, Abl. audītū, to hear, be heard. Abl. audiendo. by hearing.

SUPINE.

But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

212. PASSIVE VOICE.—Audior, I am heard.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audi.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

I am heard.

PLURAL. aud**īmur**

audīris, or re

aud**īminī** aud**iuntur**

IMPERFECT.

I was heard.

aud**iēbar** aud**iēbāris**, *or* re aud**iēbā**tur audi**ēbāmur** aud**iēbāminī** aud**iēbantur**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be heard.

aud**iar** audi**ēris**, *or* re audi**ētu**r

audi**ēmur** aud**iēminī** aud**ientur**

PERFECT.

I have been heard, or I was heard.

audītus sum ¹ audītus es audītus est

audītī sumus audītī estis audītī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been heard.

audītus erās audītus erās audītus erat

audītī erāmus audītī erātis audītī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been heard.

audītus erš 1 audītus eris audītus erit audītī erimus audītī eritis audītī erunt

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

audiar audiāris, or re aud**iāmur** audiāminī

audiātur

audiantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

andirer audīrēris, or re audīrēmur audīrēminī

audīrētur

audīrentur

PERFECT.

I may have been heard, or I have been heard.

audītus sim 1 audītus sīs

audītī sīmus audītī sītis

audītus sit

audītī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been heard, he would have been heard,

audītus essem 1 audītus essēs audītus esset

audītī essēmus audītī essētis audītī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audīre, be thou heard; | audīminī, be ye heard.

Fut. auditor, thou shalt be heard,

auditor, he shall be heard; audiuntor, they shall be heard.

PARTICIPLE.

Infinitive.

Pres. audīrī, to be heard.

Perf. audītus esse,1 to have been | Perf. audītus, heard. heard.

Fut. auditum Iri, to be about to Ger. audiendus, to be heard, deserving to be heard.

be heard.

102 VERBS.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

213. ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	Present.							
am	-ŏ	- ā s,	-at;	-āmus,	-ātis,	-ant.		
mon	-eŏ,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.		
reg	-ŏ ´	-is,	-it;	-imus,	-itis,	-unt.		
aud	-iŏ,	-īs,	-it;	-īmus,	-ītis,	-iunt.		
	,	,			,	-Iune.		
0.500	āham	2622	IMPERFEC		m3 m4*	-1 (
am	-ābam,	-ābās,	-ābat;	-ābāmus,	-ābātis,	-ābant.		
mon	-ēbam,	-ēbās,	-ēbat;	-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ēbant.		
reg	-ēbam,	-ēbās,	-ēbat;	-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ēbant.		
aud	-iēbam,	-iēbās,	-iēbat;	-iēbāmus,	-iēbātis,	-iēbant		
			FUTURE					
am	-ābŏ,	-ābis,	-ābit;	-ābimus,	-ābitis,	-ābunt.		
mon	-ēbŏ,	-ēbis,	-ēbit;	-ēbimus,	-ēbitis,	-ēbunt.		
reg	-am,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.		
aud	-iam,	-iēs,	-iet;	-iēmus,	-iētiś,	-ient.		
			CITTO TITTO	·	,			
	SUBJUNCTIVE.							
			PRESENT					
am	-em,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.		
mon	-eam,	-eās,	-eat;	-eāmus,	-eātis,	-eant.		
reg	-am,	-ās,	-at;	-āmus,	-ātis,	-ant.		
aud	-iam,	-iās,	-iat;	-iāmus,	-iātis,	-iant.		
			IMPERFEC	т.				
am	-ārem,	-ārēs,	-āret;	-ārēmus,	-ārētis,	-ārent.		
mon	-ērem,	-ērēs,	-ēret;	-ērēmus,	-ērētis,	-ērent.		
reg	-erem,	-erēs,	-eret;	-erēmus,	-erētis,	-erent.		
aud	-īrem,	-īrēs,	-īret;	-īrēmus,	-īrētis,	-īrent.		
	,	,	_ ′	,	22 0 0259	*******		
	1	PRESENT.	IMPERATI	VE. F	UTURE.			
SINGU	LAR.	PLURAL.	SINGUL		PLUR	AT.		
am	-ā,	-āte;	-ātŏ,	-ātŏ;	-ātōte,	-antŏ.		
mon	ē,	-ēte;	-ētŏ,	-ētŏ;	-ētōte, •	-entŏ.		
reg	-e,	-ite;	-itŏ,	-itŏ;	-itōte,			
aud	-ī,	-īte;	-ītŏ́,	-ītŏ;	-Itōte,	-iuntă		
PRI	es. Infin	NITIVE.	Pres.	PARTICIPLE	E. G	ERUND.		
am		-āre;		-āns;		-andī.		
mor	1 .	-ēre;		-ēns;		-endī.		
reg		-ere;		-ēns;		-endī.		
aud		-īre ;		-iēns;		-iendī.		
Nor	E.—Verbs i	n íð of Conj.	III. have certain	endings of Con	j. IV.; see 21	.7.		

¹ For the Present System, see 222, I.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

214. PASSIVE VOICE.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

			INDI		OOD.				
am mon reg aud	-or, -eor, -or, -ior,	-aris -ēris -eris -īris	or āre,¹ or ēre, or ere, or īre,	Presentātur; -ētur; -itur; -ītur;	-āmur, -ēmur, -imur, -īmur,	-āminī, -ēminī, -iminī, -īminī,	-antur. -entur. -untur. -iuntur.		
	-1	-1 - 1		IMPERFECT.	-1	=1.=:=	Show term		
am mon reg aud	-ābar, -ēbar, -ēbar, -iēbar,	-ēbāris -ēbāris	or ābāre, or ēbāre, or ēbāre, or iēbāre,	-ābātur; -ēbātur; -ēbātur; -iēbātur;	-ābāmur, -ēbāmur, -ēbāmur, -iēbāmur,	-ābāminī, -ēbāminī, -ēbāminī, -iēbāminī,	-ēbantur. -ēbantur.		
				FUTURE.					
am mon reg aud	-ābor, -ēbor, -ar, -iar,	-āberis -ēberis -ēris -iēris	or ābere, or ēbere, or ēre, or iēre,	-ābitur; -ēbitur; -ētur; -iētur;	-ābimur, -ēbimur, -ēmur, -iēmur,	-ābiminī, -ēbiminī, -ēminī, -iēminī,	-ābuntur, -ēbuntur, -entur, -ientur,		
	SUBJUNCTIVE.								
				PRESENT.					
am mon reg aud	-er, -ear, -ar, -iar,	-ēris -eāris -āris -iāris	or ēre, or eāre, or āre, or iāre,	-ētur; -eātur; -ātur; -iātur;	-ēmur, -eāmur, -āmur, -iāmur,	-ēminī, -eāminī, -āminī, -iāminī,	-entur. -eantur -antur. -iantur.		
				IMPERFECT.					
am mon reg aud	-ārer, -ērer, -erer, -īrer,	-ārēris -ērēris -erēris -īrēris	or ārēre, or ērēre, or erēre, or īrēre,	-ārētur; -ērētur; -erētur; -īrētur;	-ārēmur, -ērēmur, -erēmur, -īrēmur,	-ārēminī, -ērēminī, -erēminī, -īrēminī,	-ārentur. -ērentur. -erentur. -īrentur.		
	_		T	MPERATIV	E				
	PRESE				FU	TURE.	DAT		
am	-āre,	-āminī		-ātor,	-ātor;	PLU	-antor.		
mon	-ëre,	-ëminī		-ētor,	-ētor;		-entor.		
reg	-ere,	-iminī;		-itor,	-itor;		-untor.		
aud	-īre,	-īminī		-ītor,	-ītor ;		-iuntor.		

1 In these and the following endings re takes the place of ris: āris or āre, ābāris or
ābāre. Re is formed from ris by dropping final s and then changing final i to e; see
86, 5; 24, 1, note; also 237.

GERUNDIVE. -andus.

-endus.

-endus.

-iendus.

PRES. INFINITIVE.

-ārī;

-ērī;

-īrī;

-ī;

am

mon

reg aud

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

215. ACTIVE VOICE.

PERFECT SYSTEM.1

INDICATIVE MOOD.

re.2

	PER	FECT.		
-istī,	-it;	-imus,	-istis,	-ērunt, ē
-erās,	-erat;	-erāmus,	-erātis,	-erant.
	FUTURE	PERFECT.		
-erĭs,	-erit;	-erĭmus,	-er ĭt is,	-erint.
	Subjur	NCTIVE.		
	PER	FECT.		
-erĭs,	-erit;	-erimus,	-erĭtis,	-erint.
	PLUPE	RFECT.		
-issēs,	-isset;	-issēmus,	-issētis,	-issent.
P	ERFECT I	NFINITIVE.		
su	PINE	SYSTEM	1	
CIVE.	FUT. PAR	RTICIPLE.	Sui	PINE.
	-erās, -erīs, -issēs, P SU	-istī, -it; PLUPI -erās, -erat; FUTURE -erīs, -erit; SUBJUI PER -erīs, -erit; PLUPE -issēs, -isset; PERFECT I	PLUPERFECT. -erās, -erat; -erāmus, FUTURE PERFECT. -erīs, -erit; -erīmus, SUBJUNCTIVE. PERFECT. -erīs, -erit; -erīmus, PLUPERFECT. -issēs, -isset; -issēmus, PERFECT INFINITIVE. SUPINE SYSTEM. EIVE. FUT. PARTICIPLE.	-istī, -it; -imus, -istis, Pluperfect. -erās, -erat; -erāmus, -erātis, Future Perfect. -erīs, -erit; -erīmus, -erītis, SUBJUNCTIVE. Perfect. -erīs, -erit; -erīmus, -erītis, Pluperfect. -issēs, -isset; -issēmus, -issētis, Perfect Infinitive. SUPINE SYSTEM. PIVE. FUT. PARTICIPLE. SUI

-ūrus esse.

rēct audīt -urus.

-um, -ū.

¹ For the Perfect System, see 222, II.; for the Supine System, 222, III.

² From the comparative view presented in 213-216, it will be seen that the four conjugations differ from each other only in the formation of the *Principal Parts* and in the endings of the *Present System*. See also 201, foot-note.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

216. PASSIVE VOICE.

SUPINE SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Perfect. amāt)

monit -us sum, -us es, -us est; -ī¹ sumus, -ī estis, -ī sunt. audīt

PLUPERFECT.

amāt ` monit | -us eram, -us erās, -us erat; -ī erāmus, -ī erātis, -ī erant. audīt

FUTURE PERFECT.

amāt monit -us erĕ, -us eris, -us erit; -I erimus, -I eritis, -I erunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perfect.

monit .us sim, -us sīs, -us sit; -ī simus, -ī sītis, -ī sint. audīt

PLUPERFECT.

amāt 1 monit -us essem, -us esses, -us esset; -ī essēmus, -ī essētis, -ī essent audīt

INFINITIVE.

amāt) Perfect. monit | -us esse. audīt |

FUTURE. -um irf.

PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

amāt] monit rect -us.

¹ In the plural, -us becomes -ī: amāt-ī sumus, etc.

- 217. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in io, ior, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. They are inflected with the endings of the Fourth wherever those end ings have two successive vowels. These verbs are—
- 1. Capio, to take; cupio, to desire; facio, to make; fodio, to dig; fugio, to flee; jacio, to throw; pario, to bear; quatio, to shake; rapio, to seize; sapiō, to be wise, with their compounds.
- 2. The compounds of the obsolete verbs, lacio, to entice, and specio, to look; allicio, elicio, illicio, pellicio, etc.; aspicio, conspicio, etc.
- 3. The Deponent Verbs: gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer; see 231.

218. ACTIVE VOICE.—Capio, I take.

VERB STEM, cap; PRESENT STEM, cape.2

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	Pres. Inf.	PERF. IND.	SUPINE.
capiŏ,	capere,	cēpī,	captum.
	INDICATI	VE MOOD.	
SINGUL	AR. PRESEN	T TENSE.	URAL.
capiŏ, capis, e	apit;	capimus, cap	
	IMPE	RFECT.	
capiēbam, -iēb	ās, -iēbat;	capiēbāmus,	-iēbātis, -iēbant.
	Fur	TURE.	
capiam, -iēs, -i	et;	capiēmus, -iē	tis, -ient.
	PER	FECT.	
cēpī, -istī, -it;		cēpimus, -isti	s, -ērunt, or ēre
	PLUPI	ERFECT.	
cēperam, -erās	, -erat;	cēperāmus, -e	erātis, -erant.
	FUTURE	PERFECT.	
cēperŏ, -erĭs, -	erit;	cēperīmus, -e	rĭtis, -erint.
	Subjur	NCTIVE.	
	Pre	SENT.	
capiam, -iās, -i	at;	capiāmus, -iā	tisiant.

PLUPERFECT.

cēpissem, -issēs, -isset;

caperem, -erēs, -eret;

cēperim, -eris, -erit;

cēperimus, -eritis, -erint. cēpissēmus, -issētis, -issent.

caperēmus, -erētis, -erent.

IMPERFECT.

PERFECT.

¹ Speciŏ occurs, but is exceedingly rare.

² With variable vowel-e, i: cape, capi.

IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.

Pres. cape;

capite.

Fut. capitŏ,
 capitŏ;
 capitote,
 capitote,
 capitote,

Infinitive. Participle.

Pres. capiens.

Perf. cēpisse.
Fut. captūrus esse.
Fut. captūrus.

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. capiendī,

Abl. capiendo.

Dat. capiendō,
Acc. capiendum,
Acc. captum,

219. PASSIVE VOIUE.—Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Abl. captū.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind capior, capi, captus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

capior, caperis, capitur; | capimur, capiminī, capiuntur.

IMPERFECT.

capiēbar, -iēbāris, -iēbātur; | capiēbāmur, -iēbāminī, -iēbantur

FUTURE.

capiar, -iēris, -iētur; | capiēmur, -iēminī, -ientur.

PERFECT.

captus sum, es, est; | captī sumus, estis, sunt.

PLUPERFECT.

captus eram, erās, erat; | captī erāmus, erātis, erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

captus ero, eris, erit; | captī erimus, eritis, erunt.

PRESENT. SINGULAR. PLURAL. capiar, -iāris, -iātur; capiāmur, -iāminī, -iantur. IMPERFECT. caperer, -erēris, -erētur; caperēmur, -erēminī, -erentur PERFECT. captus sim, sīs, sit; captī sīmus, sītis, sint. PLUPERFECT. captus essem, essēs, esset; captī essēmus, essētis, essent. IMPERATIVE. Pres. capere; capiminī. Fut. capitor, capitor; capiuntor. INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. Pres. capī. Perf. captus esse. Perf. captus.

VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

Fut. capiendus.

Fut. captum īrī.

220. The Principal Parts are formed in the four conjugations with the following endings, including the characteristic vowels, ā, ē, e, ī:

CONJ. 1.				Ŏ,	āre,	ā v ī,	ātu m ,	
				amŏ,	amāre,	amāvī,	amātum, to lo	we.
Conj. II.	In	a few	verbs:	eŏ,	ēre,	ēvī,	ētum,	
				dēleŏ,	dēlēre,	dēlēvī,	dēlētum, to d	estroy.
	In	most	verbs:	eŏ,	ēre,	uï,	itum,	
							monitum, to a	dvise.
Conj. III.	In	conson	ant stems	. ŏ,	ere,	sī,	tum,	
							carptum, to pi	luck.
	In	vowel	stems:	· ŏ,	ere,	ī,	tum,	
				acuŏ,	acuere,	acuī,	acutum, to sh	arpen.
Conj. IV.							ītum, audītum, to he	ear.

221. Compounds of verbs with dissyllabic Supines generally change the stem-vowel in forming the principal parts:

I. When the Present of the compound has i for e of the simple verb:

1. The Perfect and Supine generally resume the e:1

regő, regere, rèxī, rēctum, to rule. dī-rigő, dīrigere, dīrēxī, dīrēctum, to direct.

2. But sometimes only the Supine resumes the e:1

teneč, tenere, tenuī, tentum, to hold. dē-tineč, dētinere, dētinuī, dētentum, to detain.

- II. When the Present of the compound has i for a of the simple verb:
- 1. The Perfect generally resumes the vowel of the simple perfect, and the Supine takes e, sometimes a:

capič, capere, cēpī, captum, to take.
ac-cipič, accipere, accēpī, acceptum, to accept.

2. But sometimes the Perfect retains i and the Supine takes e: 1

rapič, rapere, rapuī, raptum, to seize. dī-ripič, dīripere, dīripuī, dīreptum, to tear asunder.

Note.—For Reduplication in compounds, see 255, I., 4; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

222. All the forms of any regular verb arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems:

- I. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises—
 - 1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative—Active and Passive.
 - 2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive—Active and Passive.
 - 3. The Imperative-Active and Passive.
 - 4. The Present Infinitive—Active and Passive.
 - 5. The Present Active Participle.
 - 6. The Gerund and the Gerundive.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the *Present Stem*, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping the ending re: amāre, present stem AMĀ; monēre, MONĒ; regere, REGE; audīre, AUDĪ.

- II. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the Active Voice—
 - 1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
 - 2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
 - 3. The Perfect Infinitive.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the *Perfect Stem*, found in the Perfect Indicative Active, by dropping **i**: amāvī, perfect stem Amāv; monuī, MONU.

III. The Supine System, with the Supine as its basis, comprises-

¹ The favorite vowel before x, or two or more consonants; see 24, 1.

- 1. The Supines in um and \bar{u} , the former of which with $\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$ forms the Future Infinitive Passive.
- 2. The Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles, the former of which with esse forms the Future Active Infinitive, and the latter of which with the proper parts of the auxiliary sum forms in the Passive those tenses which in the Active belong to the Perfect System.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the Supine Stem, found in the Supine by dropping um: amātum, supine stem AMĀT; monitum, MONIT.

SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION

FIRST CONJUGATION.

223. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amő, I love.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

amŏ, amāre, amāvī, amātum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, amā.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. amő
Imp. amābam
Fut. amābŏ

SUBJUNCTIVE. | IMPER. | INFINITIVE. | Amāre | amāre | amārs

amāre | amātŏ | amātŏ | Gerund, amandī, dō, etc.

3. Perfect System; Stem, amāv.

 Perf. amāvī
 amāverim

 Plup, amāveram
 amāvissem

 F. P. amāverŏ
 amāvissem

4. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, amāt.

Fut. | amātūrus esse | amātūrus Supine, amātum, amātū,

224. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

amor, amārī, amātus sum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, amā.

Pres. amor amer amāre amārī
Imp. amābar amārer amātor
Fut. amābor

Gerundive, amandus.

	3. SUPINE SYST	ем; Ѕтем,	amāt.	
Perf. amātus sum Plup. amātus eram F. P. amātus erŏ	amātus sim amātus essem	IMPER.	infinitive. amātus esse	PARTICIPLE. amātus
Fut.		1 1	amātum īrī	Advanta
	SECOND CO	NJUGAT	TION.	
225. ACTIVE	VOICE.—Moneŏ	, I advise.		
	1. Princip	PAL PARTS.		
moneŏ,	monēre,	monuī,	, monitu	m.
	2. Present Syst	rem; Stem,	monē.	
Pres. moneŏ Imp. monēbam Fut. monēbŏ	moneam monērem	monē to	monēre	monēns
	Gerund, mor	1	etc.	3
	3. Perfect Syst	EM · STEM	monu	
Perf. monuī Plup. monueram F. P. monuerŏ	monuerim monuissem		monuisse	
	4. SUPINE SYSTI	EM : STEM. :	monit.	
Fut.		, ,	monitūrus esse	monitūrus
	Supine, mon	itum, moni	tū.	
226. PASSIVE	VOICE.—Mone	or, I am ad	lvised.	
	1. Princip	PAL PARTS.		
moneor,	monēr	ï,	monitus sur	m.
	2. Present Syst	гем; Ѕтем,	$mon\bar{e}$.	
Pres. moneor Imp. monebar Fut. monebor	monea r monērer	monēre monētor	monērī	
2 w. moneson	Ger u ndive,	, monendus	l.	š
	3. Supine Systi	w. Sper	manit	
Perf. monitus sum		l Drem,	monitus esse	monitus
Plup. monitus eram F. P. monitus erő	monitus essem			11101110111
Fut.			monitum īrī	i

THIRD CONJUGATION.

227.	ACTIVE	VOICE	-Regŏ,	I rule.
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1	. PRINCIPAL	PARTS

regŏ, regere, rēxī, rēctum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, rege.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE. '	PARTICIPLE.
Pres.	regŏ	regam	rege	regere	regēns
Imp.	regēbam	regerem		· ·	
Fut.	regam		regitŏ		
		Gerund, rege	endī, dō, etc	2.	

3. Perfect System; Stem, rex.

 Perf. rēxī
 rēxerim

 Plup. rēxeram
 rēxissem

 F. P. rēxerő
 rēxissem

4. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, rēct.

Fut. | | rēctūrus esse | rēctūrus Supine, rēctum, rēctū.

228. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

regor, regī, rēctus sum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, rege.

 Pres. regor
 regar
 regere
 regī

 Imp. regēbar
 regerer
 regitor

Gerundive, regendus.

3. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, rēct.

Perf. rēctus sum Plup. rēctus eram F. P. rēctus erŏ	rēctus sim rēctus essem	rēctus esse	rēctus
Fut.		rēctum īrī	

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

229. ACTIVI	VOICE.	—Audiŏ,	I hear.
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4 1	73		
	PRINCIP.	AL I	ARTS.

audio, audire, audivi, auditum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, audī.

Pres. audiŏ
Imp. audiĕbam
Fut. audiam

audiam audirem audī audītŏ

audīre

audiens

Gerund, audiendī, dō, etc.

3. Perfect System; Stem, audīv.

Perf. audīvī
Plup. audīveram
F. P. audīverŏ

audīverim audīvissem audīvisse

4. Supine System; Stem, audīt.

Fut.

| | audītūrus esse | audītūrus | Supine, audītum, audītū.

230. PASSIVE VOICE.—Audior, I am heard.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS

audior, audīrī, audītus sum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, audī.

Pres. audior Imp. audiēbar Fut. audiar audiar audīre audīrī audīrer audītor

Gerundive, audiendus

3. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, audīt.

Perf. audītus sum Plup. audītus eram F. P. audītus erŏ Fut. audītus sim audītus essem audītus esse

audītus

audītum īrī

DEPONENT VERBS.

- 231. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the signification of the Active. But—
- 1. They have also in the Active, the future infinitive, the participles, gerund, and supine.
- 2. The gerundive generally has the passive signification; sometimes also the perfect participle: hortandus, to be exhorted; expertus, tried.
- 3. The Future Infinitive of the Passive form is rare, as the Active form is generally used.

Note.—The synopsis of a single example will sufficiently illustrate the peculiarities of Deponent Verbs.

232. Hortor, I exhort.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum.

2. Present System; Stem, hortā.

Pres. hortor ¹ Imp. hortābar Fut. hortābor	subjunctive. horter hortarer	hortāre	infinitive. hortārī	PARTICIPLE. hortāns
Gerun	d, hortandī.	Gerundi	ve hortandus	

3. SUPINE SYSTEM: STEM. hortat.

		,,		
Perf. hortātus sum Plup, hortātus eram F. P. hortātus erŏ	hortātus sim hortātus essem		hortātus esse	hortātus
Fut.		-	hortātūrus esse	hortātūrus

Supine, hortātum, hortātū.

NOTE.—For the Principal Parts of Deponent Verbs in the other conjugations, see 268, 283, and 288. From these Principal Parts the pupil, by the aid of the paradigms already learned, will be able to inflect any Deponent Verb.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

233. The ACTIVE PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION, formed by combining the Future Active Participle with *sum*, denotes an intended or future action:

¹ The tenses are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: hortor, hortāris, hortātur, hortāmur, hortāminī, hortantur. All the forms in this synopsis have the active meaning. I exhort, I was exhorting, etc., except the Gerundive, which has the passive force, de-erving to be exhorted, to be exhorted. The Gerundive, as it is passive in meaning, cannot be used in intransitive Deponent Verbs, except in an impersonal sense; see 301, 1.

Amātūrus sum, I am about to love.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	INFINITIVE.
Pres. amātūrus sum 1	amātūrus sim	amātūrus esse
<i>Imp.</i> amātūrus eram	amātūrus essem	
Fut. amātūrus erŏ		
Perf. amātūrus fuī	amātūrus fuerim	amātūrus fuisse
Plup. amātūrus fueram	amātūrus fuissem	
E D amatünus fuară 1		

234. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Gerundive with sum, denotes necessity or duty.

Amandus sum, I must be loved.2

Pres.	amandus	sum	amandus	sim	amandus	esse
Imp.	amandus	eram	amandus	essem		
	amandus					
	amandus			fuerim	amandus	fuisse
	amandus		amandus	fuissem		
FP	amandus	fueră				

Note.—The Periphrastic Conjugation, in the widest sense of the term, includes all forms compounded of participles with sum; but as the Pres. Part. with sum is equivalent to the Pres. Ind. $(am\bar{a}ns\ est=amat)$, and is accordingly seldom used, and as the Perf. Part. with sum is, in the strictest sense, an integral part of the regular conjugation, the term Periphrastic is generally limited to the two conjugations above given.

PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION.

235. Perfects in **āvī**, **ēvī**, **īvī**, and the tenses derived from them, sometimes drop **v** and suffer contraction before **s** and **r**, and sometimes before **t**. Thus—

Ā with the following vowel becomes **ā**: amāvistī (amaistī), amāstī; amāveram (amaeram), amāram; amāvisse (amaisse), amāsse; amāvit (amait), amāt.

Ē with the following vowel becomes **ē**: $n\bar{e}v\bar{i}$ (to spin), $n\bar{e}vist\bar{i}$ (neisti), $n\bar{e}st\bar{i}$; $n\bar{e}v\bar{e}runt$ (neērunt), $n\bar{e}runt$.

Ī-ī and ī-i become ī: audīvistī (audiistī), audīstī; audīvissem (audiissem), audīssem; audīvit (audiit), audīt.

1. Perfects in $iv\bar{i}$ sometimes drop v in any of their forms, but generally without contraction, except before s: $audiv\bar{i}$, audii, audiit, audieram; $audi-vist\bar{i}$, $audiist\bar{i}$ or $audist\bar{i}$.

 $^{^1}$ The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: amātūrus sum, es, est. The Fut. Perf. is rare. 2 Or, I deserve (ought) to be loved.

 $^{^{\}rm S}$ Then in prose the first i retains quantity and $accent: aud \tilde{i}'-\tilde{i},~aud \tilde{i}'-it.~See Seelmann, p. 94.$

- 2. Perfects in $\bar{v}v\bar{i}$.—The perfects of $n\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$, to know, and $move\bar{o}$, to move, sometimes drop v and suffer contraction before r and s: $n\bar{o}vist\bar{i}$, $n\bar{o}st\bar{i}$.
- 3. Perfects in sī and xī sometimes drop īs, is, or sīs: scrīpsistī, scrīpstī; dīxisse, dīxe; accessistis, accestis.
- 236. The ending **ēre** for **ērunt** in the Perfect is common in Livy and the poets, but rare in Cicero and Caesar.

Note.—The form in êre does not drop v. In poetry erunt occurs.

- 237. Re for ris in the ending of the second Person of the Passive is rare in the Present Indicative, but common in the other tenses.
- 238. Dīc, dūc, fac, and fer, for dice, dūce, face, and fere, are the Imperatives of dīcō, dūcō, faciō, and ferō, to say, lead, make, and bear.

NOTE 1.—Dice, duce, and face occur in poetry.

Note 2.—Compounds follow the simple verbs, except those of faci, which change a into i: $c\bar{o}nfice$.

- 239. Undus and undī for endus and endī occur as the endings of the Gerundive and Gerund of Conj. III. and IV., especially after i: faciundus, from faciō, to make; dīcundus, from dīcō, to say.
- 240. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus forms in—
- 1. **Ibam** for $i\bar{e}bum$, in the Imperfect Ind. of Conj. IV.: $se\bar{\imath}bam$ for $sc\bar{\imath}\bar{e}bam$. See Imperfect of $e\bar{o}$, to go, 295.
- 2. **ībo**, **ībor**, for iam, iar, in the Future of Conj. IV.: servībō for serviam; opperībor for opperiar. See Future of eō, 295.
- 3. im for am or em, in the Pres. Subj.: edim, edīs, etc., for edam, edās, etc.; duim (from duŏ, for dō), for dem.—In sim, velim, nōlim, mālim (204 and 293), im is the common ending.
- 4. āssŏ, ēssŏ, and sŏ, in the Future Perfect, and āssim, ēssim, and sim, in the Perfect Subjunctive of Conj. I., II., III.: faxŏ (faesŏ) for fēcerŏ¹ (from faciŏ); faxim for fēcerim¹; ausim for ausus sim (for auserim, from audoŏ). Rare examples are: levāssŏ for levāverŏ; prohibēssŏ for prohibuerŏ; jussŏ for jusserŏ; capsŏ for cēperŏ; axŏ for ēgerŏ; occīsit for occīderit; taxīs for tetigerъs.
- 5. tổ and minổ for tor, the former in both numbers, the latter in the singular, of the Future Imperative, Passive and Deponent: arbitrātō, arbitrāminō for arbitrātor; ūtuntō for ūtuntor.
- 6. ier for î in the Present Passive Infinitive: amārier for amārī; vidērier for vidērī.

Remember that r in $er\check{o}$ and erim was originally s; see 31, 1; 204, foot-note 2.

ANALYSIS OF VERBAL ENDINGS.

241. The endings which are appended to the stems in the formation of the various parts of the finite verb contain three distinct elements:

1. The Tense-Sign: ba in amā-ba-in, regē-bā-s.

2. The Mood-Vowel: ā in mone-ā-s, reg-ā-s.

3. The Personal Ending: s in mone-ā-s, reg-ā-s.

I. Tense-Signs.

242. The Present is without any tense-sign: amā-s. So also the Future in Conjugations III. and IV.

243. In the other tense-forms of all regular verbs, the tense-sign is found in the auxiliary with which these forms are all compounded:

Amā-bam,² amāv-eram ; amā-bŏ, amāv-erŏ ; monē-bam, monu-eram.

II. Mood-Signs.

244. The Indicative has no special sign to mark the Mood.

245. The Subjunctive has a long vowel—ā, ē,³ or ī⁴—before the Personal Endings:

Mone-ā-mus, mone-ā-tis, am-ē-mus, am-ē-tis, s-ī-mus, s-ī-tis.

Note.—This vowel is shortened before final m and t, and generally in the Perfect before s, mus, and tis. moneam, amet, sit, jueris, amāverimus, amāveritis.

- ¹ This Future is in form a Present Subjunctive, though it has assumed in full the force of the Future Indicative; see foot-note 4 below.
- ² Bam and eram are both auxiliary verbs in the Imperfect, the former from the stem bhv, the old form of fu in fu- \bar{i} , and the latter from the stem es; the former added to the Present stem forms the Imperfect, the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Pluperfect. $B\bar{o}$ and $er\bar{o}$ are Future forms, the former from bhu, the latter from es; the former added to the Present stem forms the Future in Conjugations I. and II., the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Future Perfect. In the Subjunctive the tense-forms, except the Present, are compounded with Subjunctive tense-forms from es; thus, erem in regressing for esem, the old form of essem; erim in $r\bar{e}x$ -erim is for esim = sim, and issem in $r\bar{e}x$ -issem is for essem; thus the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive of sum added to the Perfect stem form the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
 - ³ This \tilde{e} comes from a- \tilde{i} , of which the \tilde{i} alone is the true Mood Sign.
- 4 The Latin Subjunctive contains the forms of two distinct Moods—the Subjunctive with the sign \bar{a} , and the Optative with the sign \bar{i} , sometimes contained in \bar{e} for $a-\bar{i}$. Thus: Subjunctive, $mone-\bar{a}-mus$, $audi-\bar{a}-tis$; Optative, $s-\bar{i}-mus$, $r\bar{e}-mus$, $r\bar{e}-mus$, $reger-\bar{e}-s$ for $regera-\bar{i}-s$. The Subjunctive and Optative forms, originally distinct, have in the Latin been blended into one Mood, called the Subjunctive, and are used without any difference of meaning. Thus the Mood in $mone-\bar{a}-mus$, a Subjunctive form, has precisely the same force as in $am-\bar{e}-mus$, an Optative form. The First Person Singular of Futures in am-regam, audiam, etc.—is in form a Subjunctive, while the other Persons, $reg\bar{e}s$, et, etc., $audie\bar{e}s$, et, etc., are in form Optatives.

246. The Imperative is distinguished by its Personal Endings; see 247, 3.

III. PERSONAL ENDINGS.

247. The Personal Endings are formed from ancient pronominal stems, and have, accordingly, the force of pronouns in English. They are as follows:

	Person.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	MEANING.
Singular.1	First	· m	\mathbf{r}	I
	Second	S	ris	thou, you
	Third	t	tur	he, she, it
$Plural.^{2}$	First	mus	mur	we
	Second	tis	minī ³	you
	Third	nt	ntur	they
		EXAMPLE	S.	
amāba-m	amāb	a-r	regŏ	rego-r
amābā-s	amāb	ā-ris	regi-s	rege-ris
amāba-t	amāb	ā-tur	regi-t	regi-tur

regi-mus

regi-tis

regu-nt

regi-mur

regi-minî

regu-ntur

1. OMITTED.—In the Present,⁴ Perfect, and Future Perfect Ind. of all the conjugations, and in the Future Ind. of Conjugations I. and II., the ending m does not appear. In these forms the First Person ends in ō: 5 amō, amābō, amāverō; except in the Perfect, where it ends in ī: 6 amāvī.

amābā-mur

amābā-minī

amāba-ntur

- The endings of the Perfect Active are peculiar. They are the same as in fuī:
- ¹ In the Singular these Personal Endings contain each—(1) in the Active Voice one pronominal stem, m, I; s, thou, you; t, he; and (2) in the Passive two such stems, one denoting the Person, and the other the Passive Voice: thus, in the ending tur, t ($t\bar{u}$) denotes the person, and r, the voice. R of the first person stands for m-r.
- ² In the Plural the Endings contain each—(1) in the Active two pronominal stems: $mu \cdot s = m \pmod{n}$ and s, I and you, i. e., we; tis = t (the original form for s, thou, as seen in $t\bar{u}$, thou) and s, s and s, thou and thou, i. e., you; nt = n and t, he and he, i. e., they; and (2) in the Passive three such stems, the third denoting the Passive Voice: thus in ntur, nt (ntu) denotes the person and number, and r, the voice.
- ³ $Min\bar{\imath}$ was not originally a Personal Ending, but the Plural of a Passive Participle, not otherwise used in Latin, but seen in the Greek ($\mu\epsilon\nu\rho\iota$). Amāmin $\bar{\imath}$, originally amāmin $\bar{\imath}$ estis, means you are loved, as amāt $\bar{\imath}$ estis means you have been loved.
 - 4 Except in sum, I am, and inquam, I say.

amābā-mus

amābā-tis

amāba-nt

- ⁵ The origin of this final \check{o} is uncertain. Curtius regards it as simply the *thematic* vowel, but Meyer recognizes in it a *suffix* combined with the *thematic* vowel; see Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 199, 200; Meyer, p. 349.
- ⁶ Probably a part of the stem; but see Curtius, Verbum, II., p. 173; Papillon, pp. 194-196; also two papers by the author, on the Formation of the Tenses for Completed Action in the Latin Finite Verb; Transactions of the Am. Phil. Assoc., 1874 and 1875.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First Pers.	fu-ī ¹	fu-i-mus
Second	fu-is-tī	fu-is-tis
Third	fu-i-t	fu-ëru-nt or ëre

3. The Imperative Mood has the following Personal Endings:

	ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.		
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Pres. Second Pers.	2	te	re	\min ī	
Fut. Second	tŏ	tōte	tor		
Third	tŏ	ntŏ	tor	ntor	

248. Infinitives, Participles, Gerunds, and Supines are formed with the following endings:

	0	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
Infinitive	Present	re (ere)	rī (erī), ī
	Perfect	isse	us esse
	Future	ūrus esse	um īrī
Participle	Present	ns	
	Future	ūrus	
	Perfect		us
	Gerundive		ndus
Gerund		ndī	
Supine		um, ū	

FORMATION OF STEMS.

249. The three Special Stems are all formed from the Verb Stem.

I. PRESENT STEM.

250. The Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping re, is generally the same as the Verb Stem in the First and in the Fourth Conjugations, and sometimes in the Second. Thus, $am\bar{a}$, $d\bar{e}l\bar{e}$, and $aud\bar{s}$ are both Present Stems and Verb Stems.

¹ M is omitted in the first person, and $t\bar{t}$, an ancient form of $s\bar{t}$, s, is used in the second. Otherwise the endings themselves are regular, but in the second person $t\bar{t}$ and $t\bar{t}s$ are preceded by $\bar{t}s$, and $\bar{t}runt$ in $fu-\bar{t}runt$ is a compound of fu and esunt for sunt. Fu-istis, in like manner, may be a compound of fu and istis for estis, and $fu-ist\bar{t}$, of fu and istis for esti for estis.

in the Present the ending is dropped in the Sing. Act., and the endings te and re are shortened from tis and ris of the Indicative by dropping s and changing final i into e; see 24, 1, note. In the Future, $t\tilde{o}$ of the second person corresponds to $t\tilde{v}$ of the Perfect Ind.; $t\tilde{o}$ and $nt\tilde{o}$ of the third person to t and nt. Tor and nt or $t\tilde{o}$ and $nt\tilde{o}$. Total onbles the pronominal stem.

³ The final vowels are generally explained as derived from aja, which became, in Conj. I., ajo, shortened to \check{o} in $am-\check{o}$, and to \check{a} in the other forms, as $am-\check{a}$ -mus; in

251. The Present Stem, when not the same as the Verb Stem, is formed from it by one of the following methods:

1. By adding a short vowel, called the Thematic vowel:1

regŏ; canŏ;	Stem, reg;	Present Stem, rege; cane;	to rule. to sing.
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2. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by n, sc, or t:

sinč; spernč; temnč; veterāscč; crēscč; plectč:	Stem,	sper, sprē; tem; veterā; crē;	Pre	sent Stem,	sperne; temne; veterāsce; crēsce;	to permit. to spurn. to despise. to grow old. to increase.
plectō;	4.6	plec;		66	pleete;	to braid.

3. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by i or j:

```
capiố; Stem, cap; Present Stem, cap-je, cape; 2 to take.
pellő; " pel; " pel-je, pelle; 2 to drive.
currő; " cur; " cur-je, curre; 2 to run.
```

4. By adding a *Thematic vowel* and inserting **n**—changed to **m** before a labial, **b** or **p**; see 33, 3:

```
frangŏ; Stem, frag; Present Stem, frange; to break.
fundó; "fud; "funde; to pour.
rumpŏ; "rup; "rumpe; to hurst.
```

5. By adding a, e, or I:

```
juvč; Stem, juv; Present Stem, juvā; to assist.
videč; "vid; "vidē; to see.
haurič; "haur for haus; "haurī; to draw.
```

6. By reduplicating the stem:

```
sistő; Stem, sta; Present Stem, sista, siste; to place.
serő; sa; Present Stem, sista, siste; to place.
sisa, sise, sere; 4 to sow.
```

Note.—Sometimes two of these methods are united in the same stem:

```
gīgnŏ; Stem, gen; Present Stem, gigene, gīgne; b to beget.
nancīscor; "nac; "nancīsce; b to obtain.
```

Conj. II., *ejo*, shortened to *eŏ* in *dēl-eŏ*, and to *ē* in *dēl-ē-mus*; and in Conj. IV., *tjo*, shortened to *iŏ* in *aud-iŏ*, to *iu* in *aud-iu-nt*, and to *ī* in *aud-ī-mus*; see 335, foot-note.

¹ This *Thematic vovel*, originally a, is generally weakened to e or i: reg-e-re, reg-i-mus; but sometimes it appears to take the form of \check{o} or u: reg- \check{o} , reg-u-nt. There is, however, some difference of opinion in regard to the origin of \check{o} in such cases; see \$47, 1, foot-note 5

² With variable Thematic vowel; see foot-note 1, above. J, pronounced y, assimilated to l and r in pelle and curre, as in the Greek βάλλω, from βάλ-jω. See Curtius, Verburn, I., p. 300.

³ For stista for stasta. The e in siste takes the several forms of the Thematic vowel.

⁴ S changed to r between two vowels; see 31, 1. The vowel a of the stem is weakened to i before s, but to e before r; see 24, 1 and 2.

⁵ Reduplication with Thematic vowel.

⁶ N inserted and i-sc-e added.

II. PERFECT STEMS.

252. Vowel Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding v:

amŏ (a-ŏ), dēleŏ,	amāvī;	Stem, am	ā; Perfect	Stem, amāv ; dēlēv :	to love. to destroy.
audiŏ,	audīvī;	" aud		audīv;	to hear.

1. In verbs in uō, the Perfect Stem is the same as the Verb Stem:

acuo, acui; Stem, acu; Perfect Stem, acu; to sharpen.

253. Many Liquid Stems, and a few others, form the Perfect Stem by adding u:

alŏ,	aluī:	Stem.	al;	Perfect Stem,	alu;	to nourish.
fremŏ.	fremuī;	66	frem;	66	fremu;	to ruge.
teneŏ.	tenuī;	46	ten;	66	tenu;	to hold.
doceŏ.	docuī:	4.6	doc;	66	docu;	to teach.

254. Most Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding s:

```
regŏ, rēxī; Stem, reg; Perfect\ Stem, rēx = rēgs; to\ rule. scribŏ, scripsī; "scrib ; "scrips = scribs; to\ write. carpŏ, carpsī; "carp; "carp; to pluck.
```

255. A few Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem without any suffix whatever. But of these—

I. Some reduplicate the stem: 1

cano, cecini; Stem, can; Perfect Stem, cecin; to sing.

1. The Reduplication consists of the initial consonant (or consonants) of the stem with the following vowel, or with e—generally with the following vowel, if that vowel is e, i, o, or u, otherwise with e; see examples under 271. 1, and 272. 1.

2. The Stem-Vowel a is generally weakened to i, sometimes to e: cado,

cecidī (for cecadī), to fall.

3. In Verbs beginning with Sp or St, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops the s: spondeŏ, spopondō (for spospondō), to proming the state of the spondoō to the spondoo to the sp

ise; stō, stetī (for stestī), to stand.

4. In Compounds the reduplication is generally dropped, but it is retained in the compounds of $d\bar{o}$, to give; $st\bar{o}$, to stand; $disc\bar{o}$, to learn; $posc\bar{o}$, to demand; and sometimes in the compounds of $curr\bar{o}$, to run: re-sponde \bar{o} , re-sponde \bar{o} , to answer; circum- $d\bar{o}$, circum- $ded\bar{i}$; circum- $st\bar{o}$, circum- $stet\bar{i}$, to encircle. The compounds of $d\bar{o}$ which are of the third conjugation change e of the reduplication into i: ad- $d\bar{o}$, ad- $did\bar{i}$ (for ad- $ded\bar{i}$), to add; see 259, 1.

II. Some lengthen the Stem-Vowel:2

```
emő, ēmī; Stem, em; Perfect Stem, ēm; to buy.
agō, ēgī; "ag; "ēg; to drive.
ab-ìgŏ, ab-ēgī; "abig; "abēg; to drive away.
```

Note.—The stem-vowels a and (in compounds) i generally become \hat{e} , as in $ag\check{o}$ and ab- $ij\check{o}$.

¹ See lists, 271, 1, and 272, 1. 2 See lists, 271, 2; 272, 2

III. Some retain the stem unchanged:1

īcō, vīsŏ,	īcī; vīsī;	Stem, ic;	Perfect Stem,		to strike.
V180,	VISI;	." vīs:	66	Vis .	to might

Note. -Of the few verbs belonging to this class, nearly all have the stem-syllable long

III. SUPINE STEM.

256. The Supine Stem adds t to the Verb Stem:

dīcŏ, diet moneŏ, mon dēleŏ, dēlē audiŏ, aud	itum; Stem, itum; " itum; " itum; " itum; " itum; " itum; "	amā; die; moni;³ dēlē; audī; carp;	Supine Stem,	amāt; diet; monit; dēlēt; audīt; carpt;	to love. to say. to advise. to destroy. to hear. to pluck,
---	---	---	--------------	--	--

1. Stems in d and t, most stems in 1 and r, and a few others, change t into s:

laedō, vertŏ, verrŏ, fallŏ,	laesum; versum; versum; falsum;	Stem,	laed; vert; verr; fall:	Supine Stem,	vers; 4	to hurt. to turn. to brush.
14110,	iaisuiii,		ran;	**	fals;	to deceive.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—STEM IN ā: PERFECT IN VI OR UI.

257. Principal Parts in-ō, āre, āvī, ātum.6

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

ātum, to best ōrātum, to hon rātum, to free ninātum, to nam nātum, to figh rātum, to hon	or. e. ne.
n	ātum, to figh

Note 1.—Pōtō, āre, āvī, ātum, to drink, has also a supine, pōtum.

Note 2.— $C\bar{e}n\bar{a}tus$, from $c\bar{e}n\bar{o}$, 'to dine,' and $j\bar{u}r\bar{a}tus$, from $j\bar{u}r\bar{o}$, 'to swear,' are active in meaning, having dined, etc. $P\bar{o}tus$, from $p\bar{o}t\bar{o}$, is also sometimes active in meaning.

¹ See list, 272, 3. ² For amaŏ. ³ See 207.

4 Laes is for laedt, plaus for plaudt, vis for vidt, vers for vertt, fals for fallt, vers for verrt; see 35, 3, 2), note.

⁵ The Perfect Formation is selected as the special basis of this classification, because the irregularities of the other principal parts are less important and can be readily associated with this formation. In this classification the regular or usual formation is first given with a few examples, then complete lists (1) of all the simple verbs which deviate from this formation, and (2) of such compounds as deviate in any important particular from their simple verbs.

 6 It is deemed unnecessary longer to retain the double mark \simeq over final o in verbs. The pupil has now learned that this vowel may be short, though it is generally long in the Augustan poets.

258. Principal Parts in-ō, āre, uī, itum.1

crepō	crepāre	crepuî	crepitum,2	to creak.
cubő	cubāre	cubuĩ	cubitum, ³	to recline.
domō	domāre	domuī	domitum,	to tame.
ēnecō	ēnecāre	ēnecuī	ēnectum,4	to $kill$.
fricō	fricāre	fricuī	frictum, }	to rub.
micō	micāre	micuī	<u> </u>	to glitter.
plicō	plicāre	(plicāvī) plicuī	plicātum,) plicitum, 6	to fold.
secō	secāre	secui	sectum,	to cut.
sonō	sonāre	sonuī	sonitum,7	to sound.
tonō	tonāre	tonuī		to thunder.
vetō	vetāre	vetuī	vetitum,	to forbid.

CLASS II.—PERFECT IN I.

259. Principal Parts in-ō, āre, ī, tum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.8

dō stō	dare stāre	stetī	stătum,	to stand.
	2. With	LENGTHENED	STEM-VOWEL.8	
juvō	juvāre	jūvī	jūtum, ¹ (lavātum, ⁹)	to assist.
lavõ	lavāre	lāvī	lautum,	to wash.

Note 1.—In $d\bar{o}$ the characteristic a is short by exception: 'o $da\bar{o}am$, $da\bar{b}o$, darem, etc. Four compounds of $d\bar{o}$ — $circumd\bar{o}$, $pessumd\bar{o}$, $satisd\bar{o}$, and $v\bar{e}numd\bar{o}$ —are conjugated like the simple verb; the rest are of the Third Conjugation (271). The basis of several of these compounds is $d\bar{o}$, 'to place,' originally distinct from $d\bar{o}$, 'to give.'

NOTE 2.—Compounds of sto generally want the Supine. In the Perfect they have steti, if the first part is a dissyllable, otherwise stiti: adsto, adstare, adstiti. Disto and exsto want Perfect and Supine.

- ¹ Note deviations in the Supine.
- 2 Increpo, are, uī (āvī), itum (ātum); discrepo, are, uī (āvī), ---.
- ³ Compounds which insert m, as $accumb\bar{o}$, etc., are of Conj. III.; see 273.
- 4 The simple $nec\hat{o}$ is regular, and even in the compound the forms in $av\hat{i}$ and atum occur.
 - 5 Dīmicō, are, āvī (uī), ātum; ēmicō, āre, uǐ, ātum.
 - 6 Duplico, multiplico, replico, and supplico, are regular: āre, āvī, ātum.
- 7 Seco has participle secātūrus; sonō, sonātūrus; juvō, juvātūrus, in compounds uiso jūtūrus. Resonō has Perfect resonāvī. Most compounds of sono want the Supine.
 - 8 See 255, I. and II.
 - 9 In poetry, lavo is sometimes of Conj. III.: lavo, lavere, lavo, etc.
- 10 This short vowel is explained by the fact that $d\bar{c}$ is a root-verb formed directly from the root da without the suffix from which the \bar{a} is derived in other verbs in this conjugation; see 250, foot-note.

260. DEPONENT VERBS.

In this conjugation deponent verbs are entirely regular.

conor	cōnārī	cōnātus sum,	to endeavor.
hortor	hortārī	hortātus sum,	to exhort.
miror	mīrārī	mīrātus sum,	to admire.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—Stem in ē: Perfect in vī or uī.

261. Principal Parts in—eō, ēre, ēvī, ētum.

These endings belong to the following verbs:

dēleō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum,	to destroy.
compleō	complēre	complēvī	complētum,¹	to fill.
fleō	flēre	flēvī	flētum,	to weep.
neō	nēre	nēvī	nētum,²	to spin.

262. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, uī, itum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

dēbeō habeō moneō noceō pāreō placeō	dēbēre habēre monēre nocēre pārēre placēre	dēbuī habuī monuī nocuī pāruī placuī	dēbitum, habitum, monitum, nocitum, pāritum, placitum,	to owe, to have, to advise, to hurt, to obey, to please.
taceō	tacēre	tacuī	tacitum,	to be silent.

NOTE 1.—Many verbs with the Perfect in un want the Supine. The following are the most important:

egeo, to want.	madeō,	to be wet. to shine.	sorbeō, to swallow. splendeō, to shine.
ēmineō, to stand forth. flōreō, to bloom. frondeō, to bear leaves.	oleō, palleō, pateō.	to smell. to be pale. to be open.	studeo, to study. stupeo, to be amazed. timeo, to fear.
horreo, to shudder. lateo, to be hid.	rubeō, sileō,	to be red. to be silent.	torpeō, to be torpid. vireō, to be green.

Note 2.—Some verbs, derived mostly from adjectives, want both Perfect and Supine. The following are the most important:

albeō, to be white.	hebeō,	to be blunt.	maereō,	to be sad.
calveo, to be hald.		to be moist.	polleō,	to be powerful.
caneo, to be gray.		, to threaten.		to shine.
flaved, to be yellou	. lacteō,	to suck.	squāleō,	to be filthy.

¹ So other compounds of the obsolete pleō: expleō, impleō, etc.

² To these may be added aboleō, abolēre, abolēvī, abolitum, 'to destroy,' with Supine in itum. See also abolēscō, 277.

CLASS II.—Stem in c, n, r, or s: Perfect in uī. 263, Principal Parts in—eō, ēre, uī, tum or sum. 2

These endings belong to the following verbs:

cēnseō doceō	cēnsēre docēre	cēnsuī docuī	cēnsun doctun	n, to teach.
misceō	miscēre	miscuī	mīstun mīxtun	
teneō torreō	tenēre torrēre	tenuī torruī	tentum	,

CLASS III.—Stem in a Consonant: Perfect in sī or ī.

264, Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, sī, tum.

augeō indulgeō	augēre indulgēre	auxī indulsī	auctum, indultum,	to increase. to indulge.
torqueō	torquēre	torsī	tortum,	to twist.

265, Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, sī, sum.2

algeō	algēre	alsī		to be cold.
ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsum,	to burn.
coniveo	cōnīvēre -	(cōnīvī) (cōnīxī)		to wink at,
frīgeō	frīgēre	frīxī (rare)		to be cold.
fulgeō	fulgëre	fulsī	5	to shine.
haereō	haerēre	haesī	haesum, ⁶	to stick.
jubeõ	jubēre	jussī	jussum,	to order.
luceo	lūcēre	lūxī		to shine.
lūgeō	lūgēre	lūxī		to mourn.
maneō	manēre	mānsī	mānsum,	to remain.
mulgeõ	mulgēre	mulsī	mulsum,	to milk.
mulceō	mulcēre	mulsī	mulsum,	to snothe.
rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsum,	to laugh.
suādeō	suādēre	suāsī	suāsum,	to advise.
tergeō	tergēre	tersī	tersum,	to wipe.
turgeő	turgēre	tursī(rare)		to swell.
urgeō (urgueō)	urgēre	ursī		to press.

Note.—Cieō, cière, civī, citum, to arouse, has a kindred form, ciō, cire, civī, citum, from which it seems to have obtained its Perfect. In compounds the forms of the Fourth Conj. prevail, especially in the sense of to call, call forth.

¹ For convenience of reference, a *General List* of all verbs involving irregularities will be found on page 383.

² The Present Stem adds ē; see 251, 5. For phonetic changes, see 33-36.

³ Participle cēnsus and cēnsītus.—Percēnseò wants Supine: recēnseō has recēnsum and recēnsītum.

⁴ In most compounds the Supine is rare.

⁵ Poetic, fulgo, fulgere, etc.

⁶ The stem of haereo is haes. The Present adds ē and changes s to r between two yowels. In haesī and haesum, s standing for ss or st is not changed.

⁷ In compounds sometimes mulctum.

266. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, ī, tum.

WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL

caveō faveō foveō moveō paveō voveō	cavēre favēre fovēre movēre pavēre vovēre	cāvī fāvī fōvī mōvī pāvī vōvī	cautum, fautum, fōtum, mōtum, vōtum,	to beware. to favor. to cherish, to move. to fear. to vow.

267. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, ī, sum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.1

mordeō mordēr pendeō pendēre spondeō spondēr tondeō tondēre	pependī e spopondī	morsum, pēnsum, spōnsum, tōnsum,	to bite. to hang. to promise, to sheur.
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2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

videō	Dog.				to sit. to see	
		3. WITH	Unchanged	STEM.		

			D KILINE	
cōnīveō	conivere	conīvī, conīxī	8	to wink at.
ferveō	fervēre	fervī, ferbuï		to boil.
langueō	languēre	languī	-	to be langurd.
liqueō	liquēre	liquī, licuī		to be liquid.
prandeō	prandēre	prandī	prānsum,4	to dine.
strīdeō	strīdēre	strīdī		to creak.

268. DEPONENT VERBS.

		1. negutar.	
liceor mereor polliceor tueor vereor	licērī merērī pollicērī tuērī verērī	licitus sum, meritus sum, pollicitus sum, t tuitus sum, t tütus sum, veritus sum,	to bid. to deserve. to promise. to protect. to fear.
		2. Irregular.	
fateor medeor	fatērī medērī	fassus sum, ⁵	to confess.
misereor	miserērī	∫ miseritus sum,)	to nitu.

¹ For reduplication in compounds, see 255, I., 4.

misertus sum,

ratus sum,

to pity.

to think.

rērī

reor

² So circumsedeo and supersedeo. Other compounds thus: assideo, ere, assedi, assessum; but dissideo, praesideo, and resideo, want Supine.

³ Observe that the *supine stem* is wanting in most of these verbs.

⁴ Participle, prānsus, in an active sense, having dined.

⁵ Confiteor, eri, confessus: so profiteor.

3. Semi-Deponent—Deponent in the Terfect.

audeō	audēre	ausus sum,	to dare. to rejoice.
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum,	
soleō	solēre	solitus sum,	to be accustomed.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Note.—This conjugation contains the primitive verbs of the language; see 335.

CLASS I.—Stem in a Consonant: Perfect in si or i

269. Principal Parts in-ō (or iō), ere, sī, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs whose stems end in a consonant. The following are examples:

carpō	carpere	carpsī	carptum,2	to pluck.
cingō	cingere	cinxī (gsī)	cinctum,	to gird.
dīcō	dīcere	dīxī	dictum,	to say.
dācā	dūcere	dūxī	ductum,	to lead.
exstinguô	exstinguere	exstinxī	exstinctum,3	to extinguish.
gerō	gerere	gessi	gestum,	to carry.
nūbō	nübere	nūpsī	nūptum,	to marry.
regō	regere	rēxī	rēctum,2	to rule.
sūmō	sümere	sūmpsī	sümptum,	to take.
trahō	trahere	traxî	tractum,	to draw.
ūrō	ūrere	ussī	üstum,	to burn.
vehō	vehere	vēxī	vēctum,	to carry.
vīvō	vīvere	vīxī	vīctum,	to live.

270. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, sī, sum.1

210	THE PERSON IN THE PERSON	(),	, ,	
cēdō	cēdere	cēssī	cessum,	to yield.
claudō	claudere	clausī	clausum,4	to close.
dīvidō	dīvidere	dīvīsī	dīvīsum,	to divide.
ēvādō	ēvādere	ēvāsī	ēvāsum,5	to evade.
fīgō	fīgere	fīxī	fīxum,	to fasten.
flectō	flectere	flēxī	flexum,	to bend.
frendō	frendere	Newscale	frēsum, fressum,	to gnash.
laedō	laedere	laesī	laesum,4	to hurt.
lūdō	lüdere	lūsī	lūsum,	to play.
mittō	mittere	mīsī	missum,	to send.
mergő	mergere	mersī	mersum,	to dip .
nectő	nectere	$\begin{cases} n\bar{e}x\bar{i} \\ nexu\bar{i} \end{cases}$	nexum,	to bind.
pectō	pectere	`pēxī	pexum,	to comb.

¹ For Phonetic Changes, see 30-36.

² The stem-vowel is often changed in compounds: $carp\bar{v}$, $d\bar{e}$ - $cerp\bar{v}$; $reg\bar{v}$, $d\bar{e}$ - $rig\bar{v}$; for this change, see 344, 4; also 221.

³ So other compounds of stinguō (rare): dīstinguō, etc.

⁴ Compounds of claudo have \bar{u} for au, $con\text{-}cl\bar{u}d\bar{o}$; those of $laed\bar{o}$, \bar{i} for ae, $il\text{-}l\bar{i}d\bar{o}$; those of $plaud\bar{o}$ generally \bar{o} for au, $ex\text{-}pl\bar{o}d\bar{o}$; those of $quati\bar{o}$, cu for qua, $con\text{-}cuti\bar{o}$.

⁵ So other compounds of $v\bar{a}d\bar{o}$. ⁶ Compounds take this form in the Perfect.

plectō plectere plaudō plaudere premō premere quatiō quatere spargō spargere rādō rādere rōdō rōdere tergō tergere trūdō trūdere	plēxī plausī pressī ² quassī ² sparsī rāsī rōsī tersī trūsī	plexum, plausum, pressum, quassum, sparsum, rāsum, rōsum, tersum, trūsum.	to plait. to applaud. to press. to shake. to scatter. to shave. to gnaw. to wipe off. to thrust.
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271. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, ī, tum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

abdō	abdere	abdidī	abditum,4	to hide.
canō	canere	cecinī	cantum,	to sing.
crēdō	crēdere	crēdidī	crēditum,6	to believe.
discō	discere	didicī	***************************************	to learn.
pangō	pangere	pepigī	pactum,	to bargain.
pangō	pangere	∫ panxī pēgī	panetum, 7)	to fix in.
pariō	parere	peperf	partum.8	to bring forth
sistô	sistere	stitī	statum,9	to place,
tangō	tangere	tetigī	tactum,10	to touch.
tendō	tendere	tetendī	{ tentum, 10 } tensum, {	to stretch.
tollō	tollere	sustulī	sublātum, 11	to raise.
věndő .	vēndere	vēndidī	vēnditum,6	to sell.
pungō	pungere	pupugī	pūnctum,12	to prick.
	2 Wm	H LENGTHENED	STUR VOWER	

	2.	$\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{ITH}}$	LENGTHENED	STEM-VOWEL.	
agō	agere		ēgī	āctum, ¹³	to drive.
capiō	capere		cēpī	captum, ¹⁴	to take.
emō	emere		ēmī	ēmptum, ¹⁵	to buy.

- ¹ See page 127, foot-note 4.
- ² See 34, 1, note; 35, 3, 2).
- 3 Also tergeo, tergere, etc.; compounds take this form; see 265.
- ⁴ So all compounds of $d\bar{o}$ except those of Conjugation I.; see 259, note 1.
- ⁵ Concino, ere, concinui, ——; so occino and praecino; other compounds want Perfect and Supine.
 - ⁶ Explained as a compound of $d\bar{o}$; see $abd\bar{o}$.
- 7 Compingō, ere, compēgī, compactum; so also impingō. Dēpangō wants Perfect; repangō, Perfect and Supine.
 - 8 Participle, paritūrus: compounds are of Conjugation IV.
 - 9 Compounds thus: consisto, ere, constitu, constitum; but circumstett also occurs.
 - 10 Compounds drop the reduplication.
 - 11 Attollo and extollo want Perfect and Supine.
 - 12 Compounds thus: compungo, ere, compunxi, compunctum.
- 18 So circumagō and peragō; satagō wants Perfect and Supine. Other compounds change a into i in the Present: abigō, ere, $ab\bar{e}g\bar{\tau}$, $ab\bar{a}ctum$; but $coig\bar{\sigma}$ becomes $c\bar{\sigma}g\bar{\sigma}$, ere, $co\bar{e}g\bar{\tau}$, $co\bar{a}ctum$, and $deig\bar{\sigma}$, $d\bar{e}g\bar{\sigma}$, ere, $d\bar{e}g\bar{\tau}$, without Supine. $Pr\bar{e}dig\bar{\sigma}$ wants Supine, and $ambig\bar{\sigma}$, Perfect and Supine.
 - 14 So antecapiō; other compounds thus: accipiō, ere, accēpī, acceptum.
 - 15 So coemo; other compounds thus: adimo, ere, adēmī, adēmptum.

faciö	facere	fēcī	factum,1	to make.
fugiō	fugere	fūgī	fugitum,	to flee.
jaciõ	jacere	jēcī	jactum,2	to throw.
frangó	frangere	frēgī	frāctum,3	to break.
legō	legere	. lēgī	lēctum,⁴	to read.
linquō	linquere	līquī		to leave.
scabo .	scabere	scābī		to scratch.
vincō	vincere	vīcī	vīctum,	to conquer.
rumpō	rumpere	rūpī	ruptum.	to burst.

272. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, ī, sum.6

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

cadō	cadere	$\operatorname{cecid} \overline{\mathbf{i}}$	cāsum,	to fall.
caedõ	caedere	cecīdī	caesum,8	to cut.
currô	currere	cucurrī	cursum,9	to run.
fallō	fallere	fefellī	falsum, 10	to deceive.
parcő	parcere	pepercī (parsī)	parsum, 11	to spare.
pellō	pellere	pepulī	pulsum,12	to drive.
pendō	pendere	pependī	pēnsum, 12	to weigh.
poscō	poscere	poposcī	13	to demand.
tundō	tundere	tutudī	{ tūnsum, 12 } tūsum,	to beat.

2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

edō	edere	ēdī	ēsum,	to eat.
fodiō	fodere	födī	fossum,	to dig.
fundo .	fundere	$\mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathrm{d}\bar{\mathbf{i}}$	fũsum,	to pour.

3. WITH UNCHANGED STEM.

accendō	accendere	accendī	accēnsum, ¹⁴	to kindle.
cūdō	cūdere	cūdī	cūsum,	to forge.
dĕfendō	dēfendere	dēfendī	dēfēnsum, ¹⁴	to defend.

¹ Passive irregular: fiō, fierē, factus sum; see 294. So satisfaciō and compounds of faciō with verbs; but compounds with prepositions thus: cōnficiō, cōnficere, cōnfēcē, cōnfictum; with regular Passive, cōnficior, cōnficio, cōnfictus sum.

² Superjaciō has jactum or jectum in Supine: compounds with monosyllabic prepositions thus: abiciō, abicere, abjēcī, abjectum; see page 20, foot-note 1.

³ Compounds thus: confringo, ere, confrequ, confractum.

⁴ So compounds, except (1) colligō, ere, collēgō, collēctum; so dēligō, ēligō, sēligō—(2) dīligō, ere, dīlēxī, dīlēctum; so intellegō, neglegō, though neglēgō occurs in the Perfect.

⁵ Compounds with Supine: relinquö, ere, relīquī, relīctum.

⁶ For Phonetic Changes, see 30-36.

⁷ Incidō, ere, incidō, incāsum; so occidō and recidō; other compounds want Supine.

⁸ Compounds thus: concīdō, ere, concīdī, concīsum.

⁹ Execurro and praecurro generally retain the reduplication: execucurro, praecucurro; other compounds generally drop it.

¹⁸ Refello, ere, refelli, without Supine.

n Comparco, ere, comparso, comparsum, also with e for a: comperco, ere, etc. Imparco and reparco want Perfect and Supine.

¹² Compounds drop reduplication, 255, I., 4.

¹³ Compounds retain reduplication, 255, I., 4.

¹⁴ So other compounds of the obsolete cando and fendo.

angō, ere, ānxī,

congruō, ere, i,

annuō, ere, ī,

batuō, ere, ī,

bibō, ere, i,

findô Icô mandô	findere Teere mandere	fidī (findī) īcī mandī	fissum, īctum, mānsum,	to part. to strike. to chew.
pandō	pandere	pandī	passum, }	to open.
pínső (pīső)	pīnsere	pīnsī pīnsuī	pīnsitum, pīstum, pīnsum,	to pound.
prehendő	prehendere,	prehendī	prehēnsum,1	to grasp.
scandō	scandere	scandī	scānsum,	to climb.
scindō	scindere	scidī	scissum,	to rend.
solvõ	solvere	solvī	solūtum,9	to loose.
vellö	vellere	vellī (vulsī)	vulsum,	to pluck.
verrō	verrere	verrī	versum,	to brush.
vertö	vertere	vertī	versum,3	to turn.
vîsō	visere	vīsī	vīsum.	to visit.
volvõ	volvere	volvī	volūtum,	to roll.
Note 1.—	Some verbs with	the Perfect in	sī or ī want the	Supine:

ingruō, ere, ī, to assail. strīdō, ere, ī, lambō, ere, ī, to lick. sternuō, ere, ī,

to squeeze.

to assent.

to drink.

to agree.

to beat.

71017	2. None	ACTOR MATTE DOCTT 7	t erreet and bupm	0 .	
clangō,		to clang.	hīscō,		to gape.
claudō,		to be lame.	vādō,		to go.5
fatisco,		to gape.	temnō,		to despise.
glīscō.		to aroin.	vergō,		to incline.

CLASS II.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN ui.

metuō, ere, ī,

psallō, ere, ī,

ningō, ere, ninxi,

sīdō, ere, ī,4

pluō, ere, ī, or plūvī,

to fear.

to rain.

to snow.

to creak.

to sneeze.

to play the hart.

to sit down.

273. Principal Parts in-ō (or iō), ere, uī, itum.

~ 10	Per a man	();	,,	
accumbō	accumbere	accubuī	accubitum,7	to recline.
alö	alere	aluī {	alitum, }	to nourish.
depső	depsere	depsuī {	depsitum, depstum,	to knead.
ēliciō	ēlicere	ēlicuī	ēlicitum,8	to elicit.
fremõ	fremere	fremuī	fremitum,	to rage.
gemō	gemere	gemuī	gemitum,	to groan.
gignõ	gignere	genuī	genitum,	to beget.
molò	molere	moluī	molitum,	to grind.

- ¹ Often written prēndō, prēndere, etc.
- ² V is here changed to its corresponding vowel u: solutum for solvtum.
- 3 Compounds of dē, prae, re, are generally deponent in the Present, Imperfect, and Future.
 - 4 Perfect and Supine generally supplied from sedeo ; hence $\mathit{s\bar{e}d\bar{z}}$, sessum . So in compounds.
 - 5 See ēvādō, 270.
 - ⁶ But contemnō, ere, contempsī, contemptum.
 - ⁷ So other compounds of cumbo, cubō; see cubō, 258.
 - 8 Other compounds of lacio thus: allicio, allicere, allexi, allectum.

ed.

pīnsō	pīnsere	{ pīnsuī { pīnsī	{ pīnsitum, } pīstum, } pīnsum, }	to crush.
pono	pönere	posuī	positum,	to place. to make a noise. to vomit.
strepo	strepere	strepuī	strepitum,	
vomo	vomere	vomuī	vomitum,	

Note.—Compēsco, 'to restrain'; excello,¹ 'to excel'; furo, 'to rage'; sterto, 'to snore'; and tremo, 'to tremble,' have the Perfect in u\(\tilde{\chi}\), but want the Supine.

274. Principal Parts in-ō (or iō), ere, uī, tum.

colõ	colere	coluī	cultum,	to cultivate.
consulo	cōnsulere	consului	consultum,	to consult.
occulŏ	occulere	occuluī -	occultum,	to hide.
rapiō	rapere .	rapuī	raptum,2	to snatch.
serō	serere	seruī	sertum,	to connect.
texō	texere	texuī	textum,	to weave.

275. Principal Parts in—ō, ere, suī, sum.

metō	metere	messuī 3	messum,	to reap.
nectő		nēxī) nexuī (nexum,	to bind.

CLASS III.—Stem in a Vowel: Perfect in vi or i.

276, The following verbs have the Perfect in avi from a stem in a:

pāscō ⁴	pāscere	pāvī	pāstum,	to feed.
sternō	sternere	strāvī	strātum,	to strew.
veterāscō	veteräscere	veterāvī	-	to grow old.

277. The following verbs have the Perfect in evi from a stem in e:

abolēscō	abolēscere	abolēvī	abolitum,5	to disappear.
cernő	cernere	crēvī	crētum,	to decide.
crēscō	crēscere	crēvī	crētum,6	to grow.
quiesco	quiëscere	quiēvī	quiētum,	to rest.
spernő	spernere	sprēvī	sprētum,	to spurn.
suēscō	suëscere	suēvī	suētum,	to become accustome

Note.—Sero, serere, sēvī, satum,7 to sow.

278. The following verbs have the Perfect in īvī from a stem in ī:

arcēssō	arcēssere	arcēssīvī	arcēssītum,	to call for. to lay hold of. to desire.
capēssō	capēssere	capēssīvī	capēssītum,	
cupiō	cupere	cupīvī	cupītum,	
facēssō		facēssīvī) facēssī (facessītum,	to make.

¹ Other compounds of cello want the Perfect and Supine, except percello, percellere, perculi, perculsum.

² Compounds thus: corripiō, corripere, corripuō, correptum.

³ The Perfect in $su\bar{\imath}$ seems to be a double formation, $s\bar{\imath}$ enlarged to $su\bar{\imath}$.

⁴ The stem of pāscō is pā, pās; the Present Stem adds sce; see 251, 2.

⁵ So inolēsco; but adolēsco has Supine adultum; exolēsco, exolētum; obsolēsco obsolētum.

⁶ Incresco and succresco want the Supine.

⁷ Compounds thus: consero, conserere, consevi, consitum.

struō ..

struere

incēssō	incēssere	(incēssīvī) incēssī (to attack.
lacēssõ	lacessere	lacēssīvī	lacēssītum,	to provoke.
linō	linere	līvī, lēvī	litum,	to smear.
nōscō	nöscere	nōvī	nōtum,¹	to know.
pető	petere	petīvī	petītum,	to ask.
quaerō	quaerere	quaesīvī	quaesītum,2	to seek.
rudō	rudere	rudīvī	rudītum,	to bray.
sapiō	sapere	sapīvī, sapuī		to taste.
sinō	sinere	sīvī	situm,	to permit.
terõ	terere	trīvī	trītum,	to rub.

279. Principal Parts in-ō, ere, ī, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs with u-stems. The following are examples:

1						
acuŏ	acuere	acuī	acütum,	to sharpen.		
arguō	arguere	arguī	argūtum,	to convict.		
imbuō	imbuere	imbuī	imbūtum,	to imbue.		
minuõ	minuere	minuī	minūtum,	to diminish.		
ruö	ruere	ruī	rutum,	to fall.		
statuõ	statuere	statuī	statūtum,	to place.		
tribuō	tribuere	tribuī	tribūtum,	to impart.		
Note.—Fluō and struō have the Perfect in xī.						
fluō	fluere	flūxī³	flūxum,	to flow.		

INCEPTIVES.

structum,

to build.

strūxī3

280. Inceptives end in scō, and denote the beginning of an action.

Note.—When formed from verbs, they are called Verbat Inceptives, and when formed from nouns or adjectives, Denominative Inceptives.

281. Most Verbal Inceptives want the Supine, but take the Perfect of their primitives:

acēscō	(aceō)	acêscere	acuī	 to become sour.
ārēscō	(āreō)	ārēscere	āruī	 to become dry.
calēscō	(caleō)	calĕscere	caluī	 to become warm.
flörēscō	(Aoreo)	flörēscere	flōruī	 to begin to bloom.
tepēscō	(tepeō)	tepëscere	tepuī	 to become warm.
virēscō	$(vire\bar{o})$	virêscere	viruĩ	 to become green.

Note.—The following take the Perfect and Supine of their primitives:

concupisco	(con, cupiò)	ere	concupīvī	concupītum,	to desire.
convalesco	(con, valeō)	ere	convalui	convalitum,	to grow strong.
exārdēscō	(ex, ardeo)	ere	exarsi	exārsum,	to burn.
inveterāscō	(inveterō)	ere	inveterāvī	inveterātum,	to grow old.
obdormisco	(ob, dormio)	ere	obdormīvī	obdormitum,	to fall asleep.
revivisco	$(re, viv\bar{o})$	ere	revîxî	revictum,	to revive.
sciscō	(scið)	ere	scīvī	scītum,	to enact.

¹ So žgnôscö; ägnôscö and côgnôscö have itum in Supine, ägnitum; džgnôscó and internôscô want Supine.

² Compounds thus: acquirō, ere, acquisivī, acquisitum.

³ For flug-sī, strug-sī, formed not from u-stems, but from consonant-stems.

282. Most DENOMINATIVE INCEPTIVES want both Perfect and Supine:

dītēscō	(dives),	to grow rich.	mītēscō (mītis),	to grow mild.
dulcēscō				to grow soft.
grandēscō	(grandis),	to grow large.	puerāscō (puer),	to become a boy.

Note.—The following have the Perfect in ui:

crēbrēscō	(crēber)	ere	crēbruī,	to become frequent.
dūrēscō	(dūrus)	ere	dūruī,	to become hard.
innötēscő	(in, nōtus)	ere	innötuï,	to become known.
macresco	(macer)	ere	macruī,	to become lean.
mātūrēscō	(mātūrus)	ere	mātūruī,	to ripen.
obmūtēscö	(ob, mūtus)	ere	obmütui,	to grow dumb.
recrūdēscō	(re, crūdus)	ere	recrūduī,	to bleed afresh.
vīlēscō	(vīlis)	ere	vīluī,	to become worthless.

283. DEPONENT VERBS.

amplector	ī	amplexus sum,	to embrace.
apīscor	ī	aptus sum,1	to obtain.
comminīscor	ī	commentus sum,2	to devise.
expergiscor	ī	experrēctus sum,	to awake.
fatīscor	ī 3	,	to gape.
fruor	ī	früctus sum,) fruitus sum, ∫	to enjoy.
fungor	ī	functus sum,	to perform.
gradior	ī	gressus sum,4	to walk.
īrāscor	ī		to be angry.
låbor	ī	lāpsus sum,	to fall.
līquor	ī		to melt.
loquor	ī ·	locūtus sum,	to speak.
morior	ī (īrī, rare)	mortuus sum, ⁵	to die.
nanciscor	ī	nactus (nanctus) sum,	to obtain.
nāscor	ī	nātus sum,5	to be born.
nītor	ī ~	inīsus sum, i nīxus sum, (to strive.
oblīvīscor	ī	oblītus sum,	to forget.
paciscor	ī	pactus sum,	to bargain.
patior	ī	passus sum,	to suffer.
proficiscor	ī	profectus sum,	to set out.
queror	ī	questus sum,	to complain.
reminīscor	ī		to remember.
ringor	ī	rictus sum,	to growl.
sequor	ī	secūtus sum,	to follow.
ulcīscor	ī	ultus sum,	to avenge.
ūtor	ī	ūsus sum,	to use.
vescor	ī		to eat.
	Semi-Depone	nt—Deponent in the Perfect.	
fīdo	fīdere	fīsus sum,	to trust.

¹ Adipīscor, ī, adeptus sum; so indīpīscor.

² Com-miniscor is compounded of con, and the obsolete miniscor; re-miniscor wants the Perfect.

³ Dë-fetiscor, i, de-fessus sum.

⁴ Compounds thus: aggredior, ī, aggressus sum.

⁵ Morior has future participle moriturus; nāscor, nāsciturus.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—STEM IN I: PERFECT IN VI.

284. Principal Parts in-iō, ire, īvī, ītum.

The following are examples:

fīniō	fīnīre	fīnīvī	fīnītum,	to finish.
lēniō	lēnīre	lēnīvī	lēnītum,	to alleviate.
mūniō	mūnīre	münīvī	mūnītum,	to fortify.
pūniō	pūnīre	pūnīvī	pūnītum,	to punish.
sciŏ	scīre	scīvī	scītum,	to know.
sepeliō	sepelīre	sepelīvī	sepultum,1	to bury.
sitiō	sitīre	sitīvī		to thirst.
vāgiō	vāgīre	vāgīvī		to cry.

Note 1.—V is often dropped in the Perfect: audit for audīvī; see 235, 1.

Note 2.—Desideratives (338, III.)—except ēsuriō, īre, —, ītum; nūpturiō, īre, īvī, and parturiō, īre, īvī—want both Perfect and Supine. Also a few others:

balbūtiō,	to stammer.	ferōciō,	to be fierce.	sāgiō,	to be wise.
caecūtiō,	to be blind.	ganniō,	to bark.	superbiō,	to be proud.
feriō,	to strike.	ineptiö,	to trifle.	tussiō,	to cough.

CLASS II.—STEM IN c, 1, OR r: PERFECT IN uī.

285. Principal Parts in—iō, īre, uī, tum.

amiciō	amicīre	amicuī (xī)	amictum,	to clothe.
aperiô	aperīre	aperuī	apertum,	to open.
operiō	operīre	operuī	opertum,	to cover.
saliō	salīre	saluī (iī)	(saltum),2	to leap.

CLASS III.—Stem in a Consonant: Perfect in sī or ī.

286. Principal Parts in-iō, īre, sī, tum.

farciō	farcīre	farsī	fartum, s	to stuff.
fulciõ	fulcīre	fulsī	fultum,	to prop.
hauriō ⁴	haurīre	hausī	haustum, hausum,	to draw.
saepiõ	saepīre	saepsī	saeptum,	to hedge in.
sanciō	sancīre	sanxī	sancītum, }	to ratify.
sarciō	sarcīre	sarsī	sartum,	to patch.
vinciõ	vincīre	vinxī	vinetum,	to bind.

¹ Supine irregular.

² Compounds thus: dēsiliō, īre, uī (iī), (dēsultum).

³ Compounds thus: confercio, ire, confersi, confertum.

⁴ The stem of haurio is haus. The Present adds i and changes s to r between two vowels. In hausi and hausum, s standing for ss or st is not changed.

to be beares

287. Principal Parts in-iō, īre, sī, sum.

sentiö	sentire	sēnsī	sēnsum,	to feel.
Note.—The	following verbs	s have the I	Perfect in i:	

	8			
comperio reperio	comperīre reperīre	comperī reperī	compertum, repertum,	to learn. to find.
veniō	venīre	vēnī 1	ventum,	to come.

288. DEPONENT VERBS.

1. Regular.

		•	
blandior	īrī	blandītus sum,	to flatter.
largior	īrī	largītus sum,	to bestow.
mentior	īrī	mentītus sum,	to lie.
mölior	īrī	mõlītus sum,	to strive.
partior	īrī	partītus sum,	to divide.
potior 2	īrī	potītus sum,	to obtain.
sortior	īrī	sortītus sum,	to draw lots.

2. Irregular.

		•	
assentior 3	īrī	assēnsus sum,	to assent.
experior	īrī	expertus sum,	to try.
mētior	īrī	mēnsus sum,	to measure.
opperior	îrī	opperitus sum,	to await.
ördior	īrī	õrsus sum,	to begin.
orior	īrī	ortus sum,4	to rise.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

289. A few verbs which have special irregularities are called by way of preëminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are sum, edō, ferō, volŏ, fīō, eō, queō, and their compounds.

290. Sum, 'I am,' and its compounds.

I. The conjugation of sum has been already given (204); its numerous compounds—absum, 5 adsum, dēsum, praesum, 5 etc.—except possum and prosum, are conjugated in the same way.

¹ With lengthened stem-vowel.

² In the Present Indicative and Subjunctive, forms of Conjugation III. occur.

³ Compounded of ad and sentio; see 287.

⁴ Participle, oritūrus.—Present Indicative, Conjugation III., oreris, oritur. Imperfect Subjunctive, orirer or orerer .- So compounds, but adorior follows Conjugation IV.

⁵ Absum and praesum, like possum, have Present Participles, absens and praesens, used as adjectives, absent, present.

II. Possum, posse, potui, to be able.

SINGULAR. INDICATIVE. PLURAL.

Pres. possum, potes, potest; possumus, potestis, possunt.

 Imp.
 poteram; 1
 poterāmus.

 Fut.
 poterō;
 poterimus.

 Perf.
 potuī;
 potuimus.

 Plup.
 potuerāmus.
 potuerāmus.

 F. P.
 potuerō;
 potuerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. possim, possīs, possit; possīmus, possītis, possint.

 Imp. possem;
 possēmus.

 Perf. potuerim;
 potuerimus.

 Plup. potuissem;
 potuissēmus.

Infinitive. Participle.

Pres. posse. Pres. potens (as an adjective).

Perf. potuisse.

NOTE 1.—Possum is compounded of potis, 'able,' and sum, 'to be.' The parts are sometimes separated, and then potis is indeclinable: potis sum, potis sumus, etc.

Note 2.—In possum observe—2

1) That potis drops is, and that t is assimilated before s: possum for potsum.

2) That the Perfect is potuī not potfuī.2

3) That posse and possem are shortened forms for potesse and potessem.

III. Prōsum, 'I profit,' is compounded of prō, prōd, 'for,' and sum, 'to be.' It retains d when the simple verb begins with e: prōsum, prōdes, prōdest, etc. Otherwise it is conjugated like sum.

291. Edō, edere, ēdī, ēsum, to eat.

This verb is sometimes regular, and sometimes takes forms similar, except in quantity,³ to those of *sum* which begin in *es.* Thus—

INDICATIVE.

 $Pres. \ \left\{ egin{array}{lll} {
m edar o}, & {
m edis}, & {
m edit}; & {
m edimus}, & {
m editis}, & {
m edunt}. \ & {
m es}, & {
m est}; & {
m estis}. \end{array}
ight.$

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Tmn	Sederem,	ederēs,	ederet;	ederēmus,	ederētis,	ederent.
zmp.	(ēssem,	ēssēs,	ēsset;	ēssēmus,	ēssētis,	ēssent.

¹ Inflected regularly through the different persons: poteram, poteras, poterat, etc. So also in the other tenses: potui, potuisti, etc.

² For old and rare forms, see 204, 2. Potuž is probably a regular perfect in už from an obsolete verb poteo or potio; see 262, 285; also Stolz, p. 225.

³ These forms have ē long before s, while the corresponding forms of sum have e short.

IMPERATIVE

Prop	{ ede; { ēs; 1	edite.
L Fes.	₹ ēs;¹	ēste.
Flast	{ editō;	editōte,
T. 600°) ēstā.	āgtāta

eduntō.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. edere. ësse.

NOTE 1 .- In the Passive, estur for editur and essetur for ederetur also occur.

Note 2.—Forms in im for am occur in the Present Subjunctive: edim, edis, edit, etc., for edam, edas, edat, etc.

Note 3 .- Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but comedo has in the Su pine comēsum or comēstum.

292. Ferō, ferre,

tulī,

lätum,

to bear.

ACTIVE VOICE.

SINGULAR.	Indicative.	PLURAL.
Pres. ferö, fers, fe	ert;	ferimus, fertis,2 ferunt.
Imp. ferēbam;3		ferēbāmus.
Fut. feram;		ferēmus.
Perf. tulī;		tulimus.
Plup. tuleram;		tulerāmus.
F. P . tulerő;		tulerimus.
Pres. feram;	SUBJUNCTIVE.	ferāmus.
Imp. ferrem;		ferrēmus.4
Perf. tulerim;		tulerimus.
Plup. tulissem;		tulissēmus.
Pres. fer; 5	IMPERATIVE.	.CL.
,		ferte.
Fut. fertő,		fertōte,
fertö;		ferunto.
Infinitive.	P	ARTICIPLE.
Pres. ferre.4	Pres.	ferēns.
Perf. tulisse.		
Fut. lātūrus esse.	Fut.	lātūrus.

¹ See page 136, foot-note 2.

² Fer-s, fer-t, fer-tis, like es-t, es-tis, dispense with the usual thematic vowel i With such vowel the forms would be feris, ferit, feritis.

⁸ Inflect the several tenses in full: ferēbam, ferēbās, etc.

Ferrem, etc., for fererem, etc.; ferre for ferere (e dropped).

⁵ Fer for fere; fertō, ferte, fertōte, ferris, fertur, without thematic vowel.

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. ferendī,

Dat. ferendō,

Acc. ferendum, Acc. lātum,
Abl. ferendō. Abl. lātū.

PASSIVE VOICE.

feror, ferrī, lātus sum, to be borne.

SINGULAR. INDICATIVE. PLURAL.

Pres. feror, ferris, fertur; 1 ferimur, feriminī, feruntur

 Imp. ferēbar;
 ferēbāmur.

 Fut. ferar;
 ferēmur.

 Perf. lātus sum;
 lātī sumus.

 Plup. lātus eram;
 lātī erāmus.

F. P. lātus erō; lātī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. ferar; ferāmur.

Imp. ferrer; ferēmur.

Perf. lātus sim; lātī sīmus.

Plup. lātus essem; lātī essēmus.

Pres. ferre: 1 IMPERATIVE. feriminī.

Fut. fertor,1

fertor; feruntor.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ferrī.¹

Perf. lātus esse. Perf. lātus.
Fut. lātum īrī. Ger. ferendus.

1. Ferō has two principal irregularities:

1) Its forms are derived from three independent stems, seen in fero, tvli, lātum.

PARTICIPLE.

2) It dispenses with the thematic vowel, e or i, before r, s, and t.

2. Compounds of fero are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a euphonic change:

ab-	auferō	auferre '	abstulī	ablātum
ad-	adferō	adferre	attulī	allātum
con-	cōnferō	conferre	contuli	collātum
dis-	differō	differre	distulī	dīlātum
ex-	efferō	efferre	extulī	ēlātum
in-	īnferō	inferre	intulī	illātum
ob-	offerō	offerre	obtulī	oblātum
sub-	sufferõ	sufferre	sustulī	sublātum

¹ Without thematic vowel.

mālim. māllem. māluerim. māluissem.

Note.—Sustuli and sublatum are not often used in the sense of suffero, to bear, but they supply the Perfect and Supine of tollo, to raise; see 271.

293. Volŏ,	velle,	voluī,	to be willing.
Nōlō,	nōlle,	nõluī,	to be unwilling.
Mālō,	mälle,	māluī,	to prefer.

INDICATIVE.

Pres.	volŏ,	nōlō,	mālō,
	vīs,	non vīs,	māvīs,
	vult:	non vult;	māvult;
	voiumus,	nōlumus,	mālumus,
	vultis,	non vultis,	māvultis,
	volunt.	nölunt.	mālunt.
Imp.	volēbam.	nõlēbam.	mālēbam.
Fut.	volam.	nölam.	mālam.
Perf.	voluī.	nōluī.	māluī.
	volueram.	nōlueram.	mālueram.
	voluerō.	nõluerõ.	māluerō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

	DODGONCIIVE.	
Pres. velim.1	nōlim.	
Imp. vellem.2	nöllem.	
Perf. voluerim.	nōluerim.	
Plup. voluissem.	nōluissem.	
# tup: Totalssonia	1	

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	nölī,	nõlīte.
Fut.	nōlītō,	nōlītōte,
	nolito;	nōluntō.

INFINITIVE

Pres. velle.	nõlle.	mālle.
Perf. voluisse.	nõluisse.	māluisse

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. vo	lēns.	nōlēns.	1

Note 1.—The stem of volo is vol, with variable stem-vowel, o, e, u.

Note 2.—Nōlō is compounded of $n\bar{e}$ or $n\bar{o}n$ and $vol\bar{o}$; mālō, of magis and $vol\bar{o}$.

Note 3.—Rare Forms.—(1) Of volŏ: volt, voltis, for vult, vultis; sīs, yūltis, for sī vīs, sī vultis; vīn' for vīsne.—(2) Of nōlō: nēvīs, nēvult (nēvolt),

¹ Velim is inflected like sim, and vellem like essem.

² Vellem and velle are syncopated forms for velerem, velere; e is dropped and r * assimilated: velerem, velrem, vellem; velere, velre, velle. So nöllem and nölle, for nölerem and nöller; mällem and mälle, for mälerem and mälere.

nēvelle, for non (nē) vīs, non (nē) vult, nolle.—(3) Of mālo: māvolo, māvelim, māvellem, for mālo, mālim, māllem.

māvellem,	for a	nālō, mālim, n	nāllem.	
294.	Fīō	, fierī,	factus sum,	to become, be made.1
	,	SINGULAR.	INDICATIVE.	PLURAL.
		fīō, fīs, fit;		fīmus, fītis, fīunt.
		fīēbam;		fīēbāmus.
	-	fīam;		fīēmus.
		factus sum;		factī sumus.
		factus eram;		factī erāmus.
		factus erō;		factī erimus.
			SUBJUNCTIVE.	
	Pres.	fīam;	SUBJUNCTIVE.	fīāmus.
	Imp.	fierem;		fierēmus.
	Perf.	factus sim;		factī sīmus.
	Plup.	factus essem	;	factī essēmus.
	_		IMPERATIVE.	
	Pres.	fī;		fīte.
	In	NFINITIVE.]	PARTICIPLE.
	Pres.	fierī.		
	Perf.	factus esse.	Perf.	factus.
	Fut.	factum īrī.	Ger.	faciendus.
295.	Еŏ,	īre,	īvī, itum	to go.
			INDICATIVE.	,
		eō, īs, it;		īmus, ītis, eunt.
	A	ībam;		ībāmus.
	Fut.	,		ībimus.
	Perf.			īvimus.
	-	īveram;		īverāmus.
	F. P.	īverō;		īverīmus.
	Pres	eam;	SUBJUNCTIVE.	eāmus.
		īrem;		īrēmus.
	•	īverim;		īverīmus.
		īvissem;		īvissēmus.
	T. I.	,	Two page 4 minutes	- I - I - I - I - I - I - I - I - I - I
٠.	Pres.	ī;	IMPERATIVE.	īte.
	Fut.	ītō,		ītōte,
		ītō;		euntő.

 $^{^1}$ Compounds of fiv are conjugated like the simple verb, but confit, defit, and infit are defective; see 297, III., 2.

Odi I hata

Infinitiv	E. PARTICIPLE.
Pres. īre.	Pres. iens, Gen. euntis.
Perf. īvisse.	
Fut. itūrus esse	. Fut. itūrus.
GERUND.	SUPINE.
Gen. eundī,	
Dat. eundō,	
Acc. eundum,	Acc. itum,
Abl eundō	Abl. itū.

.1. Eō is a verb of the Fourth Conjugation, but it forms the Supine with a short vowel (itum), and is irregular in several parts of the Present System. It admits contraction according to 235: istis for ivistis, etc.

2. $E\bar{b}$, as an intransitive verb, wants the Passive, except when used impersonally in the third singular, $it\bar{u}r$, $ib\bar{u}tur$, etc. (301, 1), but $ir\bar{i}$, the Passive Infinitive, occurs as an auxiliary in the Future Infinitive Passive of the regular conjugations: $am\bar{a}tum\ \bar{i}r\bar{i}$, etc.

8. Compounds of eô generally shorten vvi into vi. Veneô (venum eô) has sometimes veniebam for venibam. Many compounds want the Supine, and a few admit in the Future a rare form in eam, ies, iet.

NOTE 1.—Transitive compounds have the Passive: $ade\bar{o}$, to approach; adeor, etc. NOTE 2.— $Ambi\bar{o}$ is regular, like $audi\bar{o}$, though $ambi\bar{b}am$ for $ambi\bar{b}am$ occurs.

296. Queō, quīre, quīvī, quitum, to be able, and nequeō, nequīre, nequīvī (iī), nequitum, to be unable, are conjugated like eō, but they want the Imperative and Gerund, and are rare except in the Present tense.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

297. Defective Verbs want certain parts. The following are the most important: 2

I. PRESENT SYSTEM WANTING.

Memini I vemember

depi, I have began.	memmi, 1 remember.	oui, i made.
Perf. coepī. Plup. coeperam. F. P. coeperō.	INDICATIVE. meminī. memineram. meminerō.	ödī. öderam. öderö.
Perf. coeperim. Plup. coepissem.	SUBJUNCTIVE. meminerim. meminissem.	ōderim. ōdissem.
	IMPERATIVE. Sing. mementō. Plur. mementōte.	

A Passive form, quitur, nequitur, etc., occurs before a Passive Infinitive.

² For many verbs which want the Perfect or Supine, or both, see 262-284.

		I	NFINITIVE.			
Perf.	coepisse.	1	meminisse.	i	ödisse.	
Fut.	coeptūrus esse.				ŏsūrus e	sse.
		P	ARTICIPLE			
Perf.	coeptus.	1			ōsus.¹	
Fut.	coeptūrus.			age of the second	ōsūrus.	
eram, e 2. A they ha learn,' a	With Passive Infinite. Coeptus is Passifeminī and ōdī are vee the sense of the I and cōnsuēvī, 'I am in sense.	sive in sen: Present in mperfect a	se. sense; hence and Future.	in the Pluperfe $V\bar{o}var{\imath}$, 'I know,	ct and Fut	ure Perfect f nōscō, 't
	II. PART	S OF E	ACH SYS	TEM WAN	TING.	
1	Āiō, I say, say \S	yes.2				
Indic.	Pres. āiō,	ais,3	ait;			āiunt.
	Imp. āiēbam,			-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ēbant.4
	Perf		,			
		āiās,	āiat;			āiant.
-	Pres. aī (rare).					
Part.	Pres. āiēns.					
2.	Inquam, I say.					
Indic.	Pres. inquam,	inquis.	inquit:	inquimus.	inquitis.	inquiunt
	Imp. —					
	Fut.					
	Perf	inquistī,	inquit;			
Imper.	Pres. inque. Fu	t . inquit $ar{ ext{o}}$	•			
3.	Fārī, to speak. ⁵					
Indic.	Pres		fātur;			
	Fut. fabor,		fābitur;			
	Perf. fātus sum,	es,	est;	fātī sumus,	estis,	sunt.
	Plup. fātus eram,	,	erat;	fātī erāmus,	erātis,	erant.
	Perf. fātus sim,		sit;	fātī sīmus,	sītis,	sint.
	Plup. fātus essem	, essēs,	esset;	fātī essēmus,	essētis,	essent.
Imper.	Pres. fāre.					

Perf. fātus.

Supine, Abl. fātū.

Ger. fandus.

of $y: \bar{a}-y\bar{o}, \bar{a}-yunt;$ see 10, 4, 3).

Gerund, Gen. and Abl. fandī, dō.

Infin. Pres. fărī. Part. Pres. (fāns) fantis.

Osus is Active in sense, hating, but is rare except in compounds: exòsus, peròsus.
 In this verb a and i do not form a diphthong; before a vowel the i has the sound

³ The interrogative form aisne is often shortened into ain'.

⁴ Aībam, aībās, etc., occur; also inquībat for inquiēbat.
⁵ Fārī is used chiefly in poetry. Compounds have some forms not found in the simple: adfāmur, adfāminī, adfābar; effāberis.

III. IMPERATIVES AND ISOLATED FORMS.

1. IMPERATIVES.

havē, salvē, cedő, apage,	havēte; salvēte, cette,	havētō; salvētō;²	Inf. havēre,¹ salvēre,	hail. hail. tell me, give me. begone.
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	apago,						
2.	ISOLATED F	ORMS.					
	INDICATIV	Æ.	Subju	NCTIVE.			
PRESE	NT.	FUTURE.	PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.	Infinitive		
c önfit	;		confiat;	confieret;	,	to be done.	
dēfit,	dēfīunt :	defiet;	dēfīat;		dēfierī,	to be wanting.	
infit,	înfiunt,					to begin.	
	Ind. Pres.	ovat,		— — for he rejoices. I pray.		fore. 3 t . ovāns.	

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

298. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English Impersonal with it: licet, it is lawful; oportet, it behooves. They are conjugated like other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive, and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

299. The most important Impersonal Verbs are—

decet, libet, {	decuit, libuit, libitum est,	it becomes.6 it pleases.6	piget, { paenitet,	piguit, pigitum est, paenituit, it causes re-
licet, }	licuit, licitum est,	it is lawful.6	pudet, {	gret.7 puduit, \\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
liquet,	licuit,	it is evident 8		puduit, puditum est, it shames.
		it excites pity.7 it behooves.	taedet,	taeduit, taesum est, it wearies.8

- 1. Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat modified sense: (1) from LIBET: libens, willing; (2) from LICET: licens, free; licitus, allowed; (3) from PAENITET: paenitēns, penitent; paenitendus, to be repented of; (4) from PUBET: pudēns, modest; pudendus, shameful.
- 2. Gerunds are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances: paenitendum, pudendo.

¹ Also written avē, avēte, etc.

² The Future salvēbis is also used for the Imperative.

^{*} Forem = essem; fore = futūrum esse; see 204, 2.

⁴ Old forms for quaero and quaerimus.

⁵ The subject is generally an infinitive or clause, but may be a noun or pronoun denoting a thing, but not a person: hoc fiert oportet, that this should be done is necessary

⁶ These four occur in the third person plural, but without a personal subject.

⁷ Më miseret, I pity; më paenitet, I repent.

⁸ Also the compound, pertaedet, pertaesum est, it greatly wearies.

300. Generally Impersonal are several verbs which designate the changes of the weather, or the operations of nature:

Fulminat, it lightens; grandinat, it hails; lūcescit, it grows light; pluit, it rains; rōrat, dew falls; tonat, it thunders.

301. Many other verbs are often used impersonally:

Accidit, it happens; appāret, it appears; constat, it is evident; contingit, it happens; delectat, it delights; dolet, it grieves; interest, it concerns; juvat, it delights; patet, it is plain; placet, it pleases; praestat, it is better; refert, it concerns.

1. In the Passive Voice intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally. The participle is then neuter:

Mihž crēditur, it is credited to me, I am believed; tibž crēditur, you are believed; crēditum est, it was believed; certātur, it is contended; curritur, there is running, people run; pūgnātur, it is fought, they, we, etc., fight; vīvitur, we, you, they live.

2. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (234) is often used impersonally. The

participle is then neuter:

Mihī scrībendum est, I must write; tibī scrībendum est, you must write; illī ecrībendum est, he must write.

CHAPTER V.

PARTICLES.

302. The Latin has four parts of speech sometimes called Particles: the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

ADVERBS.

- 303. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: celeriter currere, to run swiftly; tam celer, so swift; tam celeriter, so swiftly.
- 304. In their origin, Adverbs are mainly the oblique cases¹ of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns.
 - I. ACCUSATIVES.—Many Adverbs were originally Accusatives:
- 1. Accusatives of Nouns: partim, partly; forās,¹ out of doors; diū¹ (for dium²), for a long time. Here belong numerous adverbs in tim and sim, chiefly from verbal nouns³ no longer in use:¹ contemptim, contemptuously;

¹ Some, indeed, are the oblique cases of words not otherwise used in Latin, and some are formed by means of case-endings no longer used in the regular declensions.

² Accusative of dius = dies,

³ Some adverbs in tim and sim are from adjectives: singulātim, one by one. In time doubtless tim, ātim, sim, and im came to be regarded simply as adverbial suffixes, and were so used in forming new adverbs.

gensim, perceptibly, slowly; raptim, hastily; statim, steadily; fürtim, by stealth.

- 2. Accusatives of Nouns with Prepositions: ad-modum, very, to the full measure; in-vicem, in turn; in-cassum, in vain; ob-iter, on the road, in passing; ob-viam, in the way, against; post-modum, after a short time; inter-diù and inter-dius, during the day; inter-dum, during the time, in the mean time.
 - 3. Accusatives of Adjectives:
- 1) NEUTERS in um, a, e, us, is: sōlum, only; multum, multa, much; nimium, too much; parum, little; secundum, secondly; cēterum,² cētera, as to the
 rest; vērum,² truly; abunde,³ abundantly; facile, easily; saepe,⁴ often; plūs,
 more; minus, less; saepius, more frequently; magis, more, rather.⁵
- 2) Feminines in am, ās: bifāriam, in two parts; multifāriam, in many parts; clam = calam, secretly; palam, openly; perperam, wrongly; aliās, otherwise.
- 4. Accusatives of Pronouns: quam, how much; tam, to much; tum, then; tun-c, at that time; nun-c, now.
 - II. ABLATIVES. Many Adverbs were originally Ablatives:
- 1. Ablatives of Nouss in δ , e, is: $erg\delta$, accordingly; g numer δ , exactly; forte, by chance; $j\bar{u}re$, rightly; sponte, willingly; $gr\bar{u}tiis$, or $gr\bar{u}tis$, gratuitously; foris, out of doors.

Note.—The ablative is sometimes accompanied by a preposition or by an adjective: ex-templō, immediately—lit., from the moment; titeo for in locō, on the spot; quotannis, yearly; multi-modīs, in many ways; ho-diē (hōc-diē), to-day; quā-rē, wherefore, by which thing.

2. Ablatives of Adjectives and Participles in \bar{a} , Feminine, \bar{o} , \bar{e} , and $\bar{\imath}$, Neuter: $dextr\bar{a}^{10} = dexter\bar{a}$, on the right; $extr\bar{a}^{,11}$ on the outside; $\bar{\imath}nfr\bar{a}^{,11}$ on the under side; $intr\bar{a}$, on the inside;— $intr\bar{o}$, within; $\bar{\imath}ultr\bar{o}$, beyond; $perpetu\bar{o}$, continually; $r\bar{a}r\bar{o}$, rarely; $subit\bar{o}$, suddenly; $auspic\bar{a}t\bar{o}$, after taking the aus-

¹ $Di\bar{u}$ and dum are explained as forms of dium = diem, and dius as for $di\bar{e}s$; see Corssen, I., pp. 232-236; II., 458.

² Often becoming conjunctions—*cēterum*, but. *Nēn*, from *ne-ūnum*, also belongs here.

³ From obsolete abundis.

⁴ Here may be added semel, 'once,' and simul, 'at the same time,' both for simile.

⁵ Secus, 'otherwise'; tenus, 'as far as'; prôtinus, 'straightforward'; and versus, 'toward,' doubtless belong here.

⁶ Originally partem or viam may have been used.

⁷ Quam, from stem qua, in quī, quae; tam, tum, from stem ta, to, in the final syllable of iste, for is-tu-s, is-ta; tun-c=tum-ce, nun-c=num-ce, in which num is from the stem no, seen also in num, 'whether,' and also in its original form, na, in nam, 'for.'

⁸ Literally, by the deed. Compare Greek ἔργον, ἔργφ.

[•] That \tilde{e} is here an ablative ending is proved by the fact that it appears in early Latin in the form of $\tilde{e}d$, an undoubted ablative ending.

¹⁰ With these feminines, parte or viā may have been originally used.

¹¹ Often becoming prepositions. In fact, all prepositions in \bar{a} are derived from adverbs which were originally ablatives in $\bar{a}d$, afterward \bar{a} .

pices; cōnsultō, after deliberating; sortītō, by lot, i. e., after casting lots;—doctē, learnedly; līberē, freely; certē,¹ surely; rēctē, rightly; vērē, truly;—doctissimē, most skillfully; māximē,² especially;—bṛevī, briefly.

3. ABLATIVES OF PRONOUNS: $\epsilon \tilde{a}$, there, in that \tilde{M}_{12} ; $\hbar \tilde{a}c$, here, in this way; $qu\tilde{a}$, where, in which way; $\epsilon \tilde{a}dem$, by the same road, in the same way.

Note.—Several pronominal adverbs denote direction toward a point: $e\bar{o}$, to that place; $h\bar{v}c$, $h\bar{v}c$, to this place; 3 $ill\bar{o}$, $ill\bar{o}$ -c, $ill\bar{u}$ -c, to that place; $ist\bar{o}$, $ist\bar{o}$ -c, $ist\bar{u}$ -c, to the place where you are; $qu\bar{o}$, to which place.

III. Locatives.—Some Adverbs were originally Locatives:

- 1. LOCATIVES OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES in $\bar{\imath}$ or $\bar{\imath}$: her $\bar{\imath}$, yesterday; temper $\bar{\imath}$, in time; vesper $\bar{\imath}$, in the evening; peregr $\bar{\imath}$, or peregr $\bar{\imath}$, in a foreign land.
- 2. Locatives of Pronouns: $\hbar i c$, 4 here; i l l i c, 4 there; i s t i c, there where you are; s i c, in this way, thus; u t i, 5 u t, in which way; i b i, 6 there; u b i, where.

Note.—Locative forms in im also occur: $\bar{o}lim$, formerly; utrim-que, on both sides; illim, illin-c, from that place; hin-c, from this place; often with $d\bar{e}: utrin$ -de, from both sides; in-de, from that point, thence.

IV. Adverbs in tus and ter.—Adverbs are also formed by means of the endings tus 7 and ter; 7

Fundi-tus, from the foundation; $r\bar{u}d\bar{v}ci$ -tus, from the roots, utterly; $d\bar{v}v\bar{n}i$ -tus, by divine appointment, divinely; forti-ter, bravely; $\bar{u}cri$ -ter, sharply; $d\bar{u}ri$ -ter, harshly; $\bar{e}legan$ -ter, elegantly; aman-ter, lovingly; $pr\bar{u}den$ -ter, prudently.

Note 1.—The stem-vowel before tus becomes i, and consonant stems assume i: fundi-tus, s $r\bar{a}d\bar{a}c$ -i-tus. The stem-vowel before ter also becomes i: $d\bar{u}ri$ -ter.s Consonant stems, however, do not assume i, but drop final t: amant-ter, aman-ter.

Note 2.—Many adverbs are simply adverbial phrases or clauses whose parts have become united in writing. In these compound forms prepositions

² This is the regular ending in superlatives.

¹ As \tilde{e} is an ablative ending, $cert\tilde{o}$ and $cert\tilde{e}$ are only different forms of the same word; so also $r\tilde{e}ct\tilde{o}$ and $r\tilde{e}ct\tilde{e}$, $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$ and $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{e}$, though the two forms do not always have precisely the same meaning: $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$, in truth; $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{e}$, truly.

³ These are sometimes explained as *Datives*, but they are probably *Ablatives*; illō, lit., by that way or road, finally came to mean to that place, i. e., to the place to which the road leads.

⁴ Here the Locative ending is $\bar{\imath}:h\bar{\imath},ill\bar{\imath},ist\bar{\imath},s\bar{\imath};c$ for ce is a demonstrative ending, meaning here. Sic is the Locative of sa; see 313, foot-note.

⁵ Uti contains two stems—u or cu (seen in cui), and ta or to (seen in te in is-te).

⁶ In ibi and ubi the ending is bi; i in ibi is the stem of is, he; u in ubi is the same as in uti.

⁷ Seen also in *in-ter*, in the midst; *in-tus*, within; *sub-ter* and *sub-tus*, below. These suffixes are of uncertain origin; the former appears to be a case-suffix with ablative meaning, no longer used in declension; the latter, like *ter* in *al-ter*, *nos-ter*, and *dex-ter*, has lost its case-suffix, and may therefore represent either *terō* with an ablative suffix, or *terum* with an accusative suffix. See Corssen, II., p. 299; Kühner, I., p. 679.

⁸ The stem-vowel o is changed to i.

are especially common, and sometimes seem to be used with cases with which they do not otherwise occur: $ant-e\bar{a}$, before, before that; $inter-e\bar{a}$, in the mean time; $post-e\bar{a}$, after; $ante-h\bar{a}c$, before this; quem-ad-modum, in what manner; parum-per, for a while; $n\bar{u}-per=novum-per$, lately; $tant\bar{u}-per$, for so long a time; $vid\bar{v}-vid$

305. Many Pronominal Adverbs, like the pronouns from which they are formed (191), are correlatives of each other, as will be seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

INTERROGATIVE.	Indefinite.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
	I. PLACE IN	which.	
ubž, where? alicubž, somewhere; uspiam, usquam, anywhere; ubivis, where you please.		$h\bar{\imath}c$, here; \imath $ist\bar{\imath}c$, there; $ill\bar{\imath}c$, there; $ib\bar{\imath}$, there.	$ubreve{i}$, where.
	II. PLACE	ro which.	
quō, whither? quōrsum,4 to what place?	aliquō, to some place; quōlibet, quōvīs, whither you please. aliquō-vorsum, 4 to	 hūc, to this place; 3 istūc, to that place; illūc, to that place; eō, to that place; eōdem, to the same place. hōrsum, 4 to this 	quō, whither. quōrsum, to which place or
to what end?	some place.	place.	end.
	III. PLACE F	ROM WHICH.	
unde, whence?	alicunde, from some place; undelibet, from any place.		unde, whence.

¹ Some scholars, regarding $e\bar{a}$ and $h\bar{a}c$ in these and similar cases as ablatives, think that all such compounds had their origin at a time when ante, post, inter, etc., admitted that case; but Corssen treats $e\bar{a}$ and $h\bar{a}c$ in all such cases as neuters in the accusative plural. See Corssen, II., p. 455; Bücheler, p. 32.

² Observe that the question ubi, 'where?' may be answered indefinitely by alicubi, uspium, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative either alone or with a relative: hīc, 'here': hīc, ubi, 'here, where.'

³ Hīc, 'here,' 'near me'; istīc, 'there,' 'near you'; illīc, 'there,' 'near him'; ibĭ, 'there,' a weak demonstrative and the most common correlative of ubĭ, 'where.' See distinction in pronouns (191). A similar distinction exists in hūc, istūc, illūc, and eō.

⁴ For $qu\bar{o}$ -vorsum = $qu\bar{o}$ -versum, 'whither turned'; $aliqu\bar{o}$ -vorsum, $h\bar{u}$ c-vorsum.

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES .- (Continued.)

INTERROGATIVE.	Indefinite.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
	IV. T	IME.	
quandō, when? quandō, aliquandō, unquam, at any time. quotiēns, how often? aliquotiēns, somewhat often.		nunc, now; tum, then; tunc, at that very time; ibž, then. totiens, so often.	quom, cum, quum, when. quotiens, as, as often.
	V. WAY, MAN	NER, DEGREE.	
quā, by or in what way?	aliquā, by or in some way: quāvîs, by any way.	hāc, by this way; istāc, by that way; illāc, by that way; eā, by that way; eā- dem, by the same way.	quā, by which way.
ut, utī, how? quam, how much?	aliquā, in some way, etc. aliquam, somewhat.	ita, sīc, so, thus.	ut, utī, in which way, as. quam, as.

Note 1.—From Relative Adverbs are formed General or Indefinite Relatives by appending -cumque or by reduplicating the form: ubicumque, ubiubi, wheresoever; $qu\bar{c}cumque$, $qu\bar{c}qu\bar{c}$, whithersoever.

Note 2.—Other examples are—

- 1) Place:—alibī, elsewhere; ibīdem, in the same place; necubi, lest anywhere, that nowhere; sīcubi, if anywhere; aliō, to another place; citrō, to this side; ūltrō citrōque, to and fro; utrōque, to both places; aliunde, from another place; indidem, from the same place; utrimque, from or on both sides; undique, from all sides.
- 2) TME: $-\hbar odi\tilde{e}$, to-day; $her\tilde{l}$, yesterday; $cr\tilde{a}s$, to-morrow; $pr\tilde{l}d\tilde{e}$, the day before; $postr\tilde{l}d\tilde{e}$, the day after; jam, already; jam tum, even then; $jamdi\tilde{u}$, jamdudum, $jampr\tilde{l}dem$, long ago; quondam, at a certain time; $\tilde{o}tim$, formerly, hereafter; interim, $intere\tilde{a}$, meanwhile; $ante\tilde{l}$, prius, before; post, $poste\tilde{l}$, afterward; unquam, ever; $n\tilde{u}nquam$, never; eemper, at all times.
- 3) WAY, MANNEZ, DEGREE: $-ade\bar{o}$, so; aliter, otherwise; magis, more; paene, almost; palam, openly; $pr\bar{o}rsus$, wholly; $r\bar{\iota}te$, rightly; $vald\bar{\iota}e$, greatly; $v\bar{\iota}xe$, scarcely.
- 4) Cause: $-c\bar{u}r$, why; $e\bar{o}$, for this reason; $ide\bar{o}$, $ideirc\bar{o}$, $proptere\bar{a}$, on this account; $erg\bar{o}$, igitur, itaque, therefore, accordingly.

Note 3.—Nesciŏ, with an interrogative adverb, is often equivalent to an indefinite adverb: nesciŏ $qu\~omodo$, I know not in what way = $qu\~odammodo$, in some way; $nesci\~o$ $ub\~i$ = $alicub\~i$, in some place; $nesci\~o$ unde=alicunde, from some place; see also 191, note.

Note 4.—Adverbial phrases are formed by combining mirum or nimium with quantum: mirum quantum, it is wonderful how much = wonderfully much, wonderfully; nimium quantum, exceedingly. Mirum quam, sānē quam, and valdē quam have a similar force: how wonderfully, how very, how greatly = exceedingly, wonderfully.

NOTE 5 .- For Interrogative Particles, see 311, 8.

NOTE 6 .- For NEGATIVE PARTICLES, see 552.

306. Comparison.—Most adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the accusative neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending us of the adjective into ē:

altus,	altior,	altissimus,	lofty.
altē,	altius,	altissimē,	loftily.
prūdēns,	prudentior,	prūdentissimus,	prudent.
prüdenter,	prūdentius,	prūdentissimē,	prudently.

 When the adjective is compared with magis and māximē, the adverb is compared in the same way:

ēgregius,	magis	ēgregius,	māximē	ēgregius,	excellent.
ēgregiē,	magis	ēgregiē,	māximē	ēgregiē,	excellently.

2. When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity:

onus,	melior,	optimus,	good.
ene,	melius,	optimē,	well.
nale,	pējus,	pessimē,	badly.

3. When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

	dēterior,	dēterrimus,	worse.
	dēterius,	dēterrimē,	worse.
novus,	-	novissimus,	new.
novē,	-	novissimē,	newly.

4. A few not derived from adjectives are compared:

diū,	diūtius,	diūtissimē,	for a long time.
saepe,	saepius,	saepissimē,	often.
satis,	satius,	-	sufficiently.
nüper,	district resources	nūperrimē,	recently.

- 5. Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (169), are not compared: $h\bar{\iota}c$, here; nunc, now; vulgāriter, commonly.
- Superlatives in ō or um are used in a few adverbs: prīmō, prīmum, potissimum.

PREPOSITIONS.

307. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other:

In Îtalia esse, to be in Italy; ante me, before me.

NOTE 1.—Prepositions were originally adverbs, and, like other adverbs (304), are in origin petrified case-forms.²

¹ See **304**, II., 2.

² Thus prepositions in \bar{a} are in origin ablatives: $circ\bar{a}$, $citr\bar{a}$, $contr\bar{a}$, $erg\bar{a}$, $extr\bar{a}$, $infr\bar{a}$, etc: while those in m are accusatives: circum, $c\bar{c}ram$, cum, etc. These case-forms passed into adverbs denoting direction, situation, etc.; but they finally became associated with nouns in the accusative or ablative as auxiliary to the case-ending: $loc\bar{a}$

Note 2.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432-437.

NOTE 3.—For the FORM and MEANING of Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

308. Inseparable Prepositions. — Ambi, amb, 'around,' 'about'; dis, $d\bar{\imath}$, 'asunder'; in, 'not,' 'un-'; por, 'toward,' 'forth'; re, red, 'back'; $s\bar{e}$, $s\bar{e}d$, 'aside,' 'apart'; and $v\bar{e}$, 'not,' are called Inseparable Prepositions, because they are used only in composition.

Note.—For the Form and Meaning of the Inseparable Prepositions in Composition, see ${\bf 344}, {\bf 6},$

CONJUNCTIONS.

- 309. Conjunctions are mere connectives. They are either Co-ordinate or Subordinate.
 - 1. Coördinate Conjunctions connect similar constructions:

Labor voluptāsque, ² labor and pleasure. Karthāginem cēpit āc ² dīruit, he took and destroyed Carthage.

2. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions: \cdot

Haec DUM 2 colligunt, effugit, WHILE they collect these things, he escapes.

- 310. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise—
- 1. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting UNION:

Et, que, atque, 3 āc, and; etiam, quoque, also; neque, nec, and not; neque—neque, nec-nec, neque—nec, neither—nor.

2. Disjunctive Conjunctions, denoting separation:

 $Aut, ^4\mathit{vel}, \mathit{ve}, \mathit{s\bar{v}e}$ (seu), or; $aut-aut, \mathit{vel}-\mathit{vel},$ either—or; $\mathit{s\bar{v}e}-\mathit{s\bar{v}e},$ either—or.

Note.—Here belong interrogative particles in double or disjunctive questions: utrum, num, or ne—an, whether—or; an, or; annon, necne, or not; see 353.

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting opposition:

= from a place; ew loco = out of a place; aliquid loco movere, to move anything from a place; aliquid ex loco movere, to move anything out of a place. An adverb thus separated from the verb and brought into connection with a noun ceased to be an adverb and became a preposition.

¹ Like other prepositions, these were doubtless originally case-forms.

Thus que connects two nominatives, āc two indicatives which are entirely coördinate, took and destroyed, but dum connects the subordinate clause, huee—colliquat, with the principal clause, effugit—he escapes while they collect these things.

³ Copulative conjunctions are $et = \text{Greek } \epsilon \tau \iota$, $que = \kappa a \iota$, and their compounds—et-iam or et-jam, at-que, que-que, ne-que. Ac is a shortened form of at-que; nec, of ne-que.

⁴ Disjunctives are aut, vel, ve, with their compounds: vel = vells, 'should you wish,' offering a choice, ve = vls, 'you wish,' as in qull - vls, 'any you please'; slve = slvls, 'if you wish,'

Sed, autem, vērum, vērō, but; at, but, on the contrary; atqui, rather; ceterum, but still, moreover; tamen, yet.

4. Illative Conjunctions, denoting inference:

Ergō, igitur, inde, proinde, itaque, hence, therefore; see also 554, IV., 2.

5. Causal Conjunctions, denoting cause:

Nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.3

311. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise—

1. Temporal Conjunctions, denoting time:

Quandō, quom, 4 cum, or quum, when; ut, ubǐ, as, when; cum (quom or quum) prīmum, ut prīmum, ubǐ prīmum, simul, simulāc, simul āc, simulatque, simul atque, as soon as; dum, dōnec, quoad, quamdiū, 5 while, until, as long as; antequam, priusquam, before; posteāquam, after.

2. Comparative Conjunctions, denoting comparison:

Ut, utī, sīcut, sīcuti, as, so as; velut, just as; praeut, prout, according as, in comparison with; quam, as; tanquam, quasi, ut sī, ūc sī, velut sī, as if.

3. Conditional Conjunctions, denoting condition:

Sī,º if; sī nōn, nisi, nī, if not; sīn, but if; sī quidem, if indeed; sī modo, dum modo, dummodo, if only, provided.

4. Concessive Conjunctions, denoting concession:

Quamquam, licet, cum (quom, quum), although; etsī, tametsī, etiamsī, even if; quamvīs, quantumvīs, quantumlibet, however much, although; ut, grant that; nē, grant that not.

5. Final Conjunctions, denoting purpose or end:

Ut, $ut\bar{\imath}$, that, in order that; $n\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}ve$ (neu), that not; $qu\bar{o}$, that; $qu\bar{o}minus$, that not.

6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting consequence or result:

Ut, so that; ut non, quin, so that not.

- ¹ Conjunctions, like adverbs, consist largely of case-forms, chiefly from pronominal stems. Thus, sed, vērō, ergō, etc., are explained as ablatives (sed from suī); autem, vērum, cēterum, quam, quod, quom, or cum, etc., as accusatives; que, ubǐ, utī, ut, etc., as locatives.
 - 2 Lit., as to the rest.
 - 3 But most Causal Conjunctions are subordinate; see 311, 7.
- 4 Quom, the original form out of which cum and quum were developed (22; 26, foot-note), occurs in early Latin, as in Plautus. Cum is the approved form in classical Latin.
 - ⁵ See **304**, I., 1 and 2, foot-notes.
 - ⁶ Probably locative, possibly instrumental; see page 73, foot-note 2.
- 7 Licet is strictly a verb, meaning it is permitted; vīs, in quam-vīs and quantum-vīs, is also a verb: quam-vīs, 'as much as you wish'; as is also libet, 'it pleases,' in quantum-libet, 'as much as is pleasing.'
 - ⁸ Quōminus = $qu\bar{o}$ minus, 'by which less'; $qu\bar{i}n = qu\bar{i}$ $n\bar{e}$, 'by which not.'

7. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting CAUSE:

Quia, quod, quoniam, quandō, because, inasmuch as; cum (quom, quum), since; quandōquidem, siquidem, utpote, since indeed.

8. Interrogative Conjunctions, denoting inquiry:3

Ne, nonne, num, utrum, an, whether; an non, necne, or not.

INTERJECTIONS.

- 312. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address.⁴ They may express—
 - 1. Astonishment: ō, hem, ehem, atat, bubae, vāh, ēn, ecce.

2. Joy: iō, ēvoe, euge, ēja, ō, papae.

3. Sorrow: vae, ei, heu, ēheu, ŏhē, āh, au, pro.

Disgust: aha, phy, apage.
 Calling: heus, ō, eho, ehodum.
 Praise: eu, euge, ēja, hēja.

CHAPTER VI.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

SECTION I.

ROOTS.-STEMS.-SUFFIXES.

313. Words are formed from stems (43, 1), and stems from roots or from other stems.

Note 1.—Thus status, 'position,' is formed from the stem statu by adding the nominative suffix s, but the stem statu is itself formed from the root sta by appending the derivative suffix tu.

¹ Compounded of quom-jam, when now.

² Lit., if indeed.

³ These are sometimes classed as Adverbs. In some of their uses they are plainly Conjunctions, while in other cases they approach closely to the nature of Adverbs. As a matter of convenience they may be called $Interrogative\ Particles$; see 351, 1.

⁴ Some interjections seem to be the simple and natural utterance of feeling, and accordingly do not appear to have been built up, like other words, from roots and stems, but to be themselves specimens of the unorganized elements of human speech. Others, however, are either inflected forms, as age, 'come,' $apage = \tilde{a}\pi aye$, 'begone,' or mutilated sentences or clauses: $mehercul\bar{e}s$, $mehercul\bar{e}s$, $mehercul\bar{e}s$, juvet, 'may Hercules protect me'; $m\bar{e}east\bar{e}r$, 'may Castor protect me'; $m\bar{e}dius$, fidius, 'may the true God help me'; $\bar{e}east\bar{e}r = \bar{e}n$ $Cast\bar{e}r$, 'lo Castor.'

⁶ This s is doubtless a remnant of an old demonstrative, sa, meaning that, he, she.

NOTE 2,-Words are either simple or compound:

- 1. Simple, when formed from single roots with or without suffixes.
- 2. Compound, when formed by the union of two or more roots or stems; see 340, III.
- 314. Roots.—Roots are the primitive elements out of which all words in our family of languages have been formed. They are of two kinds:
- **1.** PREDICATIVE ROOTS, also called VERBAL ROOTS.² These designate or name objects, actions, or qualities: es in es-t, he is; i in $\tilde{\imath}$ -re, to go; due in tuc-s = dux, leader; doc in doc-ilis, docile.
- H. Demonstrative Roots, also called Pronominal Roots. These do not name objects or actions, but simply point out the relation of such objects or actions to the speaker: me in $me\bar{\imath}$, of me; tu in $tu\bar{\imath}$, of you; i in is, that, that one, he.
- 315. The Stems of simple words may be divided into three classes: Root Stems, Primary Stems, and Secondary Stems.
- 316. Root Stems are either identical with roots, or are formed from them without the aid of suffixes:

Duc-is, 'of a leader,' root-stem duc; 's es-tis, 'you are,' root-stem es; rēg-ēs, 'kings,' root-stem $r\bar{e}g$; $v\bar{o}v$ -is, 'of the voice,' root-stem $v\bar{o}c$; murmur-is, 'of a murmur,' root-stem murmur.

317. PRIMARY STEMS are formed from roots by means of suffixes:

- 1 These roots were probably all monosyllabic, and were once used separately as words, but not as parts of speech. Thus es, the root of sum, esse, 'to be,' and i, the root of $e\check{e}$, ire, 'to go,' were doubtless used in their original form, as significant words, long before the verbs themselves had an existence.
- ² Observe that from this class of roots, whether called *Predicative* or *Verbal*, may be formed the stems, not only of verbs, but also of nouns, adjectives, and, in fact of all the parts of speech except pronouns.
- The learner should note the difference in signification between *Predicative* and *Demonstrative* Roots. Thus *dux* has a definite meaning, and must always designate one who leads; while the pronoun ego is not the name of any person or thing, but may be used by any and every person in speaking of himself.
- 4 The learner has already become familiar with the use of stems in the inflection of nouns, adjectives, etc.; but stems, like roots, were probably once used as words.
- ⁵ The basis of every inflected word is a stem. Duc is therefore the stem of duc-is, but as it can not be derived from a more primitive form, it is also a root. According to some authorities, $r\bar{e}g$, the stem of $r\bar{e}g$ - $\bar{e}s$, and $v\bar{c}c$, the stem of $v\bar{c}c$ - $\bar{e}s$, are not roots, but derived from more primitive forms—reg in reg- \bar{o} , and voc in voc- \bar{o} ; according to other authorities, however, reg and $r\bar{e}g$ are only two forms of the same root; so also voc and $v\bar{c}c$, duc and $d\bar{u}c$. The stem murmur is not a root, but formed from the root mur by reduplication. See Curtius, Chron., p. 25; Schleicher, pp. 341–350; Meyer, pp. s, 371–376.

⁶ Any suffix used to form a Primary Stem is called a Primary Suffix; see 320.

Root.	SUFFIX.	STEM.	WORD.	
ar,	vo,	ar-vo,	ar-vu-m,1	field.
fac,	to,	fac-to,	fac-tu-s,1	made.
sta,	tu,	sta-tu,	sta-tu-s.	position.

Note.—All stems formed from verb-stems are also generally classed as Primary Stems: 2 cūrū-tor, 'guardian,' 'curator,' from cūrō, 'to care for,' from cūra, 'care.'

318. Secondary Stems are formed from other stems 3 by means of suffixes: 4

STEM. cīvi, ⁵	SUFFIX.	SECONDARY STEM. CIVI-CO.	Word.	civic.
victor,5	iă;	vietor-iă,	vīctōria,	victory,
victor,	īc;	vīctōr-ic,	vietrix,6	victress.

319. The STEMS OF COMPOUND WORDS are formed by the union of two or more stems, or of a stem with a root:

fu-erā,7	fu-erā-s,	you had been.
grand-aevo,8	grand-aevu-s,	of great age.
īgni-colōr,9	īgni-color,	fire-colored.
māgn-animo,10	māgn-animu-s,	great-souled.

Note 1.—Words are formed from Stems by means of the Suffixes of Inflection; see 46 and 202, note 1.

NOTE 2.—A single root often gives rise to a large class of forms. Thus, from the root sta, 'to stand,' are derived-

- 1. The numerous forms which make up the conjugation of the verb stō, stāre, stetī, statum, to stand.
 - 2. All the forms of the verb sisto, sistere, stiti, statum, 'to place.'
- 3. Numerous other forms. Thus (1), sta-bi is, 'stable,' 'firm,' from which are derived stabilio, 'to make firm'; stabilitis, 'firmness,' and stabiliter, 'firmly'; (2) stabulum, 'a standing place,' 'stable,' from which are derived stabulo, and stabulor, 'to have a standing place'; (3) stumen, 'something standing,' 'warp in an upright loom'; (4) statim, 'in standing,' 'at once'; (5) statiŏ, 'standing'; (6) statīvus, 'stationary'; (7) stator, 'a stayer'; and (8) status, 'position,' from which is derived statue, 'to place,' which in turn becomes the basis of statua, 'a statue,' and statura, 'stature.'
 - 1 Ar-vo-m weakened to arvum, fac-to-s to factus; see 22, 2.
- ² This is a matter of convenience, as new stems, or words, are formed from verb-stems in the same manner as from roots; see Schleicher, p. 347.
- ³ Except verb-stems. Remember that stems formed from verb-stems are treated as Primary; see 317, note.
- 4 Any suffix used to form a Secondary stem is called a Secondary suffix, but many suffixes may be either primary or secondary. Thus co in ciricus is Secondary, as it is added to a stem; but in locus, 'place,' it is Primary, as it is added to a root.
 - ⁶ Cīvi is the stem of cīvis, citizen; vīctor of vīctor, conqueror.
 - 6 For victoria, by contraction.
 - 7 Compounded of root fu with stem era from the root es; see 203, note 2, and 243.
 - 8 For grandi-aevo.
 - 9 Compounded of igni. the stem of ignis, 'fire,' and of color, the stem of color, 'color.'
- 10 Compounded of magno, the stem of magnus, 'great,' and of animo, the stem of animus, 'soul'; magno-animo becoming magnanimo.

320. Suffixes.—Most suffixes appear to have been formed from a comparatively small number of primitive elements called

PRIMARY SUFFIXES.

I.	II.2	Examples.
a,	ă,3 o, ē, e, i, ŏ, u,	and o in nouns and adjectives, o in nouns, and e, i, ö, and u in verbs: scrīb-a, writer; fug-a, flight; jug-o, Nom. jug-u-m, yoke; fid-e, Nom. fid-e-s, faith; reg-e, rule thou; reg-i-s, you rule; reg-ō, I rule; reg-u-nt, they rule.
i,	i, .	in a few nouns: av-i, Nom. av-i-s, bird; arc-i, Nom. arc-i-s, arc-s, arc, eitadel.
u,	u,	in nouns: 7 ac-u, Nom. ac-u-s, needle.
an,	on, ōn, en, in,	denoting either the act or the agent; asperg- on, Nom. aspergŏs (G. inis), sprinkling; ger- ōn, gerŏs (G. ōnis), a carrier; pect-en (G. inis), a comb.
ant,9	ent, unt,	in present participles: 10 audient-s, 10 audiens, hearing; ab-es-ent-s, ab-sēns, absent; amā-ent-s, amāns, loving.

- ¹ Most suffixes appear to be of pronominal origin, i. e., from pronominal stems or roots, but, according to Bopp, Corssen, and others, a few may be of verbal origin. Thus in several suffixes beginning with b—seen in ber, bilis, bulum, etc.—Corssen recognizes the root bhar = fer in fer-ō, 'to bear'; in some beginning with t—seen in ter, tor, tūrus, etc.—the root tar, 'to accomplish'; in some beginning with c—seen in cer, culum, crum, etc.—the root kar = cer, cre in cre-ō, 'to make.' For a discussion of the subject, see Bopp, III., pp. 186-201; Corssen, I., p. 567; II., pp. 40, 68; Schleicher, p. 443.
- ² Column I. shows the suffix in its supposed original form, while column II. shows the various forms which the suffix has assumed in Latin.
 - ³ Originally long in Latin in feminine forms; see 21, 2, 1).
- 4 Observe that these suffixes form stems, not cases. Sometimes the Nominative Singular is in form identical with the stem; but in most cases, the Nominative is formed from the stem by adding the Nominative suffix, as s in fide-s, m in jugu-m for jugo-m (o weakened to u, 22, 2).
- 5 Observe that the Present stem takes the several forms, reg-e, reg-i, reg-v, reg-u; but see page 118, foot-note 5.
- 6 Often thus dropped; sometimes changed to e, ē: mari, mare, sea; caedi, caede, caedē-s, slaughter.
 - ⁷ Also in adjectives, in union with *i* making *ui*: ten-ui-s, thin.
 - 8 N dropped; see 36, 5, 3).
- This is the base of several compound suffixes: ent-o, ent-i\(\tilde{a}\), ent-io—Nom. ent-um, ent-ia, and ent-ium; flu-ent-um, stream; sapi-ent-ia, wisdom; sil-ent-ium, silence.
- 16 Also in a few adjectives and nouns: frequent-s, frequent, frequent; pari-ent-a parëns. Here s is the Nominative ending.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)

I.	II.	Examples.
as,	os, us, es,¹ ēs, ōr, ur,	gen-os, gen-us,² birth; corp-us,³ body; nūb-ēs, cloud; rōb-ur,³ strength; sop-or(21, 2), sleep.
$\mathbf{ja}^4 = ya,$	iă, ⁵ io, iē,	iă and io in adjectives; iē in nouns: ex-im-iå, ex-im-io, Nom. ex-im-iu-s, ex-im-ia, ex-im- iu-m, select; fac-iè, Nom. fac-iè-s, appear- ance.
$\mathbf{ja}^{6} = ya,$	e, i, iŏ, iu,	in verbs: $cap-e$, take thou; $cap-e-re$, to take; $cap-i-s$, you take; $cap-i-mus$, we take; $cap-io$, I take; $cap-iu-nt$, they take.
jans 7 = yans,	iōs, iŏr, ius, jŏr, ŏr,	in comparatives: $mag-i\bar{o}s$, $mag-i\bar{o}r$, $m\bar{a}-j\bar{o}r$, Nom. $m\bar{a}-jor$ (21, 2), greater; $min-\bar{o}r$, $min-or$ (21, 2), smaller; see 162, 165.
ka,	că, co,	rare: 8 pau-că, pau-co, pau-cus, a, um, small; lo-co, locus, place.
la,	lă, lo, li,	see ra .
ma, ⁹	mă, mo,	för-ma, form; prī-mo, prī-mus, first; sup-mo, sum-mo (34, 3), sum-mus, highest; al-mo, al-mus, cherishing.

¹ This suffix seems to be used in forming the Latin Infinitive, in origin the Dative of a verbal noun: reg-es-e, reg-ere (31, 1), 'to rule'—lit., for ruling; e is the Dative ending (67, note); see Schleicher, p. 472. See also page 81, foot-note 2.

² With variable vowel (57, 2); in early Latin o, in classical Latin u in Nominative Singular, e in other cases. We thus have in early Latin os in gen-os, and in classical Latin us in gen-us, and es changed to er(31, 1) in gen-er-is, $gen-er-\bar{i}$, etc. Words of this class take no Nominative ending.

³ With variable vowel—o, u. We thus have *corp-us*, *corp-or-is*, with s changed to r (31, 1). S final is also changed to r in $r\bar{o}bur$; see 31, 2.

⁴ Doubtless a pronominal stem. It is common as a secondary suffix (page 154, footnote 4): pater-io, patr-io, Nom. patr-ius, paternal; vīctor-ia, victory; luxur-ia, luxur-iēs, luxury; see 325.

⁵ Originally long in Latin, see 21, 2, 1).

⁶ Probably the verbal root ja, identical with i in \tilde{ire} , to go. So explained by Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 290-295. Ja was also used as a secondary suffix, appended to the stems of nouns and adjectives, in forming denominative verbs; see 335, foot-note.

⁷ This suffix is generally secondary: alt-ior, alt-ius, higher; sapient-ior, wiser; see 162.

⁸ It seems to appear without its final vowel in some nouns in x: ape-c-s, apew, point, top. It is common as a secondary suffix: $c\bar{v}v^i-co$, $c\bar{v}v^i-cus$, civic (330); and is also used in compound suffixes, as cu-lo, ci-no, ti-co: fios-cu-lus, a small flower; $v\bar{u}t^i-ci-nus$, prophetic. See Schleicher, p. 478; Corssen, II., pp. 205, 306, 307.

9 This is also an element in ti-mã, ti-mo, si-mã, si-mo, is-si-mã, is-si-mo: op-ti-

mus, a, um, best; alt-is-si-mus, highest.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)

I.	II.	Examples.	
man,¹	men,² min,² mōn,	denoting the means of the action, sometimes the act itself, or its result: tegi-men, or tēg-men, 2 a covering; nō-men, 3 name; certā-men, contest; ser-mōn, ser-mō, 4 discourse.	
na, ⁵	nă, no,	 in adjectives with the force of perfect participles: 5 plēnč, plē-no, plē-nus, a, um, filled, full; rēg-no, rēg-num, kingdom, that which is ruled. in nouns and adjectives with various meanings: 6 sop-no, som-no (33, 3, note), som-nus, sleep. 	
ni,	ni,7	īg-ni, īg-nis, fire; pā-ni, pā-nis, bread.	
nu,	nu,	very rare: ma-nu, ma-nus, hand.	
ra, ⁸ la,	ră, ro, lă, lo, li,	ag-ro (agrus), ager, field; sac-ro (sac-rus), sacer, sac-ra, sac-rum, sacred; sed-lå, sel-la (34, 2), seat; candè-la, a light; tè-lo, tè-lum, weapon; doci-li, doci-lis, docile.	
ta,9	tă, to, să, so,	1. in perfect participles: 10 amā-tŏ, amā-tus, a, um, loved; plaud-to, plau-so (35, 3), plau-sus, applauded; cōnā-tus, having tried; prān-sus, having taken lunch. 2. in a few adjectives: sex-to, sex-tus, sixth.	

- ¹ This is an element in men-to, mon-td, and mon-to: nutri-men-tum, nutriment; queri-mon-ta, complaint; testi-mon-tum (secondary suffix), testimony.
- ² With variable vowel (57, 2). The suffix man is weakened to men in the Nominative Singular, and to min in the other cases.
 - 3 For gno-men, 'name,' the means by which one is known.
 - 4 N is dropped; see 36, 5, 3).
 - ⁵ Nearly equivalent to ta. In some languages it forms passive participles like ta.
- 6 Often secondary: pater-no, pater-nus, paternal; sometimes preceded by ā, ī, or ē: jont-ā-nus, of a fountain; can-ī-nus, canine; ali-ō-nus, belonging to another; see 327, 329, and 330.
- ⁷ As ta and na are closely related in meaning and use, so are ti and ni. They are sometimes united in the same suffix: ti- \bar{o} -ni (326).
- ⁸ Ra and la are only different forms of the same suffix. In Latin and Greek this suffix often forms verbal adjectives which sometimes pass into nouns: $gn\bar{e}_{-}rus$, 'knowing,' from $gn\bar{a}$ in $n\bar{e}_{-}sc\bar{e}_{0}$, 'to know'; $\delta\hat{\omega}_{-}\rho o\nu$, 'gift,' 'something given,' from δo in $\delta i\delta \delta \omega \mu \epsilon$, 'to give.'
- ⁹ In the form of ti it is the first element in ti-mus, a, um: op-ti-mus, best; and the second element in is-si-mus, a, um: alt-is-si-mus, highest. In the form of $t\bar{u}$, it is the first element in $t\bar{u}$ -ti, shortened to $t\bar{u}t$: $c\bar{v}vi$ - $t\bar{u}s$ = $c\bar{v}vi$ - $t\bar{u}t$ -s, state.
 - 10 Often becoming adjectives or nouns; al-to, al-tus, high; nā-tus, son.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)

I,	II.	Examples.
tar,	ter, tŏr,	see tra.
ti,¹	ti,² si,	in verbal nouns: ves-ti, ves-tis, garment; met-ti, met-tis, messis (35, 3), reaping, harvest.
tu,	tŭ,³	in verbal nouns, including supines: sta-tu, sta-tus, standing; i-tu, i-tus, going; dic-tū (supine), in telling, to tell.
tar,4 tra,4	ter, tŏr, tro,	ter and tor denoting agency; tro, means: pa-ter, father; mā-ter, mother; vic-tor, conqueror; audī-tor, hearer; arā-trum, plough.
vă,	vo, uo,	in nouns and adjectives: ar-vo, ar-vum, ploughed field; vac-uo, vac-uus, empty.

SECTION II.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

FORMATION OF NOUNS BY SUFFIXES.

I. FROM THE STEMS OF OTHER NOUNS.

321. DIMINUTIVES generally end in-

lus, la, lum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum:6

² I often disappears: men-ti, men-tis, men-ts, mēns (36, 2), mind.

5 Ter is used in names denoting family relationship, originally AGENOY: pa-ter, lit., protector, from the root pa, to protect.

¹ Ti is the first element in ti- \tilde{a} , ti- \tilde{o} , ti- \tilde{o} , ti- \tilde{o} , ti- \tilde{o} (i dropped): $j\bar{u}sti$ -tia, justice; servi-tio, servi-tium, service; $d\bar{u}ri$ - $ti\tilde{e}$, $d\bar{u}ri$ - $ti\tilde{e}$ s, hardness; sta- $ti\tilde{o}$ n, sta- $ti\tilde{o}$ (n dropped), station.

³ Tu is the first element in the suffixes, tu-ā, tu-o; tū-ti, tūt, and tū-don: sta-tua, statue; mor-tuus, dead; servi-tūti, servi-tūt (servi-tūts), servi-tūs, servi-tūte; turpi-tūdon, turpi-tūdo (n dropped), turpitude.

⁴ Perhaps of verbal origin (320, foot-note 1). This suffix seems to be the basis of several compound suffixes: $t\bar{c}r$ - $i\check{a}$, $t\bar{c}r$ -io, $t\check{u}r\check{a}$, $t\bar{u}ro$, $tr\bar{c}$ for $t\bar{c}r$ -i-c, etc.; see examples, 324, 326, 330.

⁶ For the convenience of the learner the suffixes are given in the Nominative form, i. e., with the Nominative ending and the modified stem-vowel. Observe that the stem suffix in lu-s and lu-m is lo. The endings, ulus, ula, ulum, were developed irregularly after the analogy of u-lus, u-la, u-lum in such words as hortu-lus, virqu-lus, oppidu-lum, where the u is the modified stem-vowel. Thus the u in $r\bar{e}g$ -u-lus and capit-u-lum is an irregularity introduced from the Diminutives of a and o stems. Lus, la, lum are formed from the suffix la or ra, often used in forming Primary Stems (320). Cu-us, cula, culum are compound suffixes in which the first part, cu, is formed from the suffix, originally ka, modified in Latin to co, cu, seen in lo-co-s, locus, place; see 320, ka, foot-note

filio-lus, fīlio-la, atrio-lum, alveo-lus, hortu-lus, virgu-la, oppidu-lum, rēg-ulus, capit-ulum, flōs-culus, parti-cula,	a little son, a little daughter, a small hall, a small cavity, a small branch, a small town, a petty king, a small head, a small flower, a small part,	from	filius, filia, atrium, alveus, hortus, virga, oppidum, rēx, caput, flos, pars,	son. daughter: hall. cavity. garden. branch. town. king. head. flower: part.
mūnus-culum,	a small present,	66	mūnus,	present.

- 1. Lus, la, lum, are appended to a and o stems; ulus, ula, ulum, to Dental and Guttural stems; culus, cula, culum, to e, i, and u stems, and to Liquid and s stems; see examples.
- 2. Before lus, la, lum, the stem-vowels **ă** and **o** take the form of **o** after **e** or **i**, and the form of **u** in other situations: fīlio-lus, fīlio-la for fīliā-la, hortu-lus for horto-lus.
- 3. Before culus, cula, culum, stems in u change u into i, and stems in on change o into u: versi-culus, 'a little verse,' from versus; homunculus, 'a small man,' from homŏ. Like nouns in on, a few other words form diminutives in un-culus, un-cula: av-unculus, 'maternal uncle,' from avus, 'grandfather.' 1
- 4. El·lus, el·la, el·lum, il·lus, il·la, il·lum,² are used when the stem of the primitive ends in ă or o, preceded by l, n, or r: occl·lus,² 'small eye,' from oculus; fābel·la, 'short fable,' from jābula; vīl-lum,² 'a small wine,' from vīnum.

Note.—The endings leus and ciō occur: ecu-leus,3 'a small horse,' from equus; homun-ciō, 'a small man,' from homō.

322. Patronymics, or names of Descent, generally end in—des, stem-suffix dă, masculine; s for ds, stem-suffix d, fcminine.

Tantali-dēs, son of Tantalus; Tantali-s, daughter of Tantalus.⁴
Thēsī-dēs, son of Theseus; Thēsēi-s, daughter of Theseus.
Thestia-dēs, son of Thestius; Thestiā-s, daughter of Thestius.

Note.—The suffix $n\tilde{e}_i$, preceded by \tilde{e} or \tilde{o}_i is sometimes used in forming feminine Patronymies: $Nept\tilde{u}n\tilde{e}_i-n\tilde{e}_i$, daughter of Acrisius.

¹ Nūbē-cula, plēbē-cula, and vulpē-cula are formed as if from e-stems.

The syllables el and il do not belong to the ending, but are produced by a slight change in the stem. The quantity of the vowel e or i is therefore determined by the primitive: thus, oculus, oculu-lus = ocul-lus = ocel-lus; $v\bar{v}num$, $v\bar{v}nu-lum = v\bar{v}n-lum = v\bar{v}l-lum$.

⁸ Also written equuleus, but eculeus is the approved form.

⁴ The vowel preceding the suffix is usually i, as in *Tuntali-dēs*, *Tantali-s*, modified from the stem-vowel o. Primitives in eus generally change eu to i or ēi, as in *Thēsī-dēs*, *Thēsēi-s*; and primitives in ius change stem-vowel o to α, as in *Thēstia-dēs*. Other nouns sometimes form Patronymics after the analogy of nouns in ius: Lāertiadēs, son of Laertes. Aenēās has Aenēādēs, masculine, and Aenēis, feminine.

323. Designations of Place are often formed with the endings-

	ārium, ētu	m, tum,	īle.1	
columb-ārium,	a dovecot,	from	columba,	dove.
querc-ētum,	a forest of oaks,	66	quercus,	oak.
salīc-tum,	a thicket of willow	vs, "	salīx,	willow.
ov-īle,	a sheepfold,		ovis,	sheep.

- 1. Ārium designates the PLACE where anything is kept, a receptacle: zerārium, 'treasury,' from aes, money.
- 2. Etum, tum, used with names of trees and plants, designate the PLACE where they flourish: olivetum, 'an olive-grove,' from oliva, 'olive-tree.'
- 3. Ite, used with names of animals, designates their stall or fold: bovile, 'stall for cattle,' from bōs, stem bov.

4. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Aestu-ārium, 'tidal bay,' from aestus, 'tide'; avi-ārium, 'aviary,' from avis, 'bird'; dōn-ārium, 'place for offerings,' from dōnum, 'gift'; pōm-ārium, 'orchard,' from pōmum, 'fruit'; aescul-ētum, 'forest of oaks,' from aesculus, 'oak'; pīn-ētum, 'pine-forest,' from pīnus, 'pine'; ros-ētum, 'rose-bed,' from rosa, 'rose'; vīn-ētum, 'vineyard,' from vīnum, 'vine'; virgul-tum, 'a thicket,' from virgula, 'bush'; capr-īle, 'goat-stall,' from caper, 'goat.'

324. Derivatives are also formed with several other endings, especially with—

ārius, iŏ, ium, itium, īna, imonium, itas, tūs, ātus.2

statu-ārius,	a statuary,	from	statua,	statue.
mūl-iŏ,	muletcer,	66	mülus,	mule.
sacerdot-ium,	priesthood,	66	sacerdos,	priest
serv-itium,	servitude,	"	servus,	slave.
rēg-īna,	queen,	66	rēx,	king.
patr-imonium,	patrimony,	"	pater,	father.
cīv-itās,	citizenship,	66	cīvis,	citizen.
vir-tūs,	virtue,	46	vir,	man.
consul-atus,	consulship,	. "	cōnsul,	consul.

- 1. Ārius and iš generally designate persons by their occupations.
- 2. Ium and itium denote office, condition, or collection: servitium, servitude, sometimes a collection of servants.

¹ Ārium and ile are the endings of neuter adjectives used substantively (330). The vowels d and \tilde{i} were probably developed out of the stem-vowel of the primitive, but they were afterward treated as a part of the suffix. For an explanation of such vowels, see 330, foot-note. Many derivative endings were thus formed originally by the union of certain strikes with the stem-vowel of the primitive; accordingly, when added to vowel stems, they generally take the place of the stem-vowel: $columb-\tilde{d}$, $columb-\tilde{a}rium$; $querc-o, querc-\tilde{c}tum$.

 $^{^2}$ $\bar{A}rivs$ is identical in origin with the adjective ending $\bar{a}rivs$ (330), and $\bar{a}tvs$ with $\bar{a}tvs$ in participles. In each the initial \bar{a} was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive. $\bar{I}na$ is the same formation as the adjective ending $\bar{v}nvs$ (330). On *i-tivm*, i- $m\bar{o}nivm$, i- $t\bar{a}s$, and $t\bar{v}s$, see ti, tu, man, $m\bar{o}n$, with foot-notes, 320; remember that the initial i was developed from the stem-vowel of the primitive.

- 3. Īna and imōnium are used with some variety of signification; see examples under 7 below.
- 4. Itās and tūs designate some Characteristic or condition: hērēd-i-tās, 'heirship,' from hērēs, 'heir'; virtūs, 'manliness,' 'virtue,' from vir.
- 5. Ātus denotes RANK, OFFICE, COLLECTION: consulatus, 'consulship,' from consul; senatus, 'senate,' 'collection of old men,' from senex.
 - 6. For Patrial or Gentile Nouns, see 331, note 1.

Note.—The endings $\tilde{a}g\check{o}$, $\tilde{i}g\check{o}$, and $\tilde{u}g\check{o}^{-1}$ also occur: $vir-\tilde{a}g\check{o}$, 'heroic maiden,' from vir, 'hero'; $ferr-\tilde{u}g\check{o}$, 'iron-rust,' from ferrum, 'iron.'

7. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Libr-ārius, 'transcriber of books,' from liber, 'book'; līgn-ārius, 'joiner,' from līgnum, 'wood'; quadrīg-ārius, 'driver of a four-horse chariot,' from quadrīga, 'four-horse chariot'; arbitr-ium, 'decision,' from arbiter, 'arbiter'; conjug-ium, 'wedlock,' from conjūnx, 'spouse'; magis-ter-ium, 'presidency,' from magis-ter, 'president'; ōs-tium, 'door,' from ōs, 'mouth'; gall-īna, 'hen,' from gallus, 'cock'; doctr-īna, for doctōr-īna, 'doctrine,' from doctor, 'learned man,' 'doctor'; mātr-imōnium, 'matrimony,' from māter, 'mother'; aedīl-itās, 'office of edile,' from aedīlis, 'edile'; auctōr-itās, 'authority,' from auctōr, 'founder,' 'author'; senec-tūs, 'old age,' from senex, 'old man'; tribūn-ātus,' 'office of tribune,' from tribūnus, 'tribune.'

II. Nouns from Adjectives.

325. From Adjectives are formed various Abstract Nouns with the endings—

ia, itia, ta, tās, itās, tūs, ēdŏ, itūdŏ, imōnia.3

dīligent-ia,	diligence,	from	dīligēns,	diligent.
superb-ia,	haughtiness,	"	superbus,	haughty.
amīc-itia,	friendship,	66	amīcus,	friendly.
juven-ta,	youth,	"	juvenis,	young.
līber-tās,	freedom,	44	līber,	free.
bon-itās,	goodness,	"	bonus,	good.
pi-etās,4	piety,	66	pius,	pious,
juven-tūs,	youth,	44	juvenis.	young.
dulc-ēdŏ,	sweetness,	66	dulcis,	sweet.
söl-itűdő,	solitude,	44	sõlus,	alone.
ācr-imōnia,	sharpness,	66	ācer,	sharp.

¹ These endings were formed, according to Corssen, by appending the suffix an to ag, the root of $ag\bar{o}$, to put in motion, make, do; see Corssen, I., p. 577.

² As if formed from a verb, tribūnō, āre, like equit-ātus, 'cavalry,' from equitō, āre, 'to ride,' from eques, 'a horseman.'

³ When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the final vowel. Originally the initial *i* in *i-tia*, *i-tūs*, *i-tūd*, and *i-mōnia* formed no part of the suffix, but represented the stem-vowel of the primitive. On *ia*, *tia*, and *ta*, see *ja*, *ti*, and *ta*, 320; on *i-tūs* and *tūs*, see page 160, foot-note 2; on *i-tūdō* and *i-mōnia*, see *tu* and *man*, 320. The origin of *ē-dō*, *ē-dīn* is obscure.

⁴ For pi-itās by dissimilation (26).

Note 1.—Instead of ia and itia, iës and itiës occur: pauper, pauper-iës, poverty; durus, dur-itia or dur-itiës, hardness.

NOTE 2.—Before tīs the stem of the adjective is sometimes slightly changed: facilis, facultās, faculty; difficilis, difficultās, difficultās, potēns, potēns, potentās, power.

Note 3.—A few adjectives form abstracts with both $it\bar{u}s$ and $it\bar{u}d\bar{o}$: firmus, firmitas, firmitad \bar{o} , firmness. Polysyllabic adjectives in tus often suffer contraction before these endings: honestas for honest-itas, honesty, from honestus; sollicitad \bar{o} , for sollicit-itad \bar{o} , 'solicitude,' from sollicitus.

1. Other Examples are-

Audāc-ia, 'boldness,' from audāx, 'bold'; jūst-itia, 'justice,' from jūstus, 'just'; saev-itia, 'cruelty,' from saevus, 'cruel'; senec-ia, 'old age,' from senex, 'old'; aequāl-itās, 'equality,' from aequālis, 'equal'; cār-itās, 'dearness,' from cāvus, 'dear'; ānxi-etās, 'anxiety,' from ānxius, 'anxious'; al'itūdō, 'height,' from altus, 'high'; fort-itūdō, 'bravery,' from fortis, 'brave'; māgn-itūdō, 'greatness,' from māgnus, 'great.'

III. Nouns from Verbs and from Roots.

326. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed numerous nouns with the suffixes—1

ter, tor.2 trīx, trum, tūra, tus, tiŏ, iŏ,3

60	1, 101, 111	a, orani, cara,	ous, 610, 10.	
pa-ter, frā-ter, amā-tor, audī-tor, dēfēn-sor, vēnā-tor, vēnā-trīx, gubernā-trīx, arā-trum,	father, brother, lover, hearer, defender, hunter, huntress, directress, plough,	from the root	pa, bhra, fra, amā-re, audī-re, dēfend-ere, vēnā-rī, gubernā-re, arā-re,	to protect. to support. to love. to hear. to defend to hunt. " to direct. to plough.
ara-trum, rös-trum, pīc-tura, pīc-tūra, ū-sūra, audī-tus, vī-sus, audī-tiŏ, moni-tiŏ, roiŏ, leg-iŏ, oecīd-iŏ,	peough, beak, painter, painting, using, hearing, sight, hearing, advising, seeing, a selecting, a slaying,	66 66 66 66 66 66 66 66 66	ara-re, rōd-ere, ping-ere, " ūt-ī, audī-re, vid-ēre, audī-re, monē-re, vid-ēre, leg-ere, occīd-ere,	to plough, to grave, to paint, "" to use, to hear, to see, to hear, to advise, to select, to slay.

¹ These endings appear to be true suffixes, as they do not contain the stem-vowel of the primitive.

² For the phonetic change by which t in tor, tūra, etc., unites with a preceding d or t and produces ss or s, as in dēfend-tor, dēfēnsor, see 35, 3, 2).

³ On ter, tor, trīx, and tūra, see tar, tra; on tus and tiö, see tu and ti; and on iā. see ja. 620.

⁴ For rod-trum; see 35, 3, 1).

⁵ For ût-tûra, vid-tus, vid-tiŏ; see 35 3 2)

^{&#}x27; From stem moni, seen in moni-tum

NOUNS. 163

- 1. Ter, tor, and trīx designate the agent or doer; trum, the means of the action; and tūra, tus, tiŏ, and iŏ, the act itself; see examples. But nouns in tus and iŏ sometimes become concrete, and denote the result of the action: quaes-tus, 'gain,' from quaes-ere, 'to gain'; leg-iŏ, 'a selecting' and then 'a legion' (the men selected), from leg-ere, 'to select'; exerci-tus, 'exercise,' 'drill,' and then 'an army' (a collection of trained men), from exercē-re, 'to exercise.'
- 2. **Us**, a, ŏ¹ sometimes designate the agent of the action: coqu-us = coquus, cook, from coqu-cre, to cook; scrīb-a, writer, from scrīb-cre; err-ŏ, wanderer, from err-āre.

Note 1.—Tor, trīw, tūra, and tus are sometimes added to noun stems with or without change: viā-tor, 'traveler,' from via, 'way'; senā-tor, 'senator,' trom sence (Genitive senis, stem sen), 'old man'; jāni-tor, 'janitor,' and jāni-trīw, 'janitrīw,' from jānua, 'gate'; litterā-tūra, 'writing,' from littera, 'letter'; cōnsul-ā-tus, 'consulship,' from cōnsul, 'consul.'

Note 2.—For nouns in $i\check{o}$ from the stems of other nouns, see 324, with 1.

3. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Accūsā-tor, 'accuser,' from accūsā-re, 'to accuse'; cūrā-tor, 'keeper,' from cūrā-re, 'to take care of'; da-tor, 'giver,' from da-re, 'to give'; vīc-tor, 'victor,' from vinc-ere,² 'to conquer'; inven-trīx, 'a female discoverer,' from inven-īre, 'to discover'; monstrum = mon-es-trum,³ 'prodigy,' from mon-ēre, 'to admonish'; rūs-trum, 'rake,' from rād-ere, 'to rake,' 'scrape'; armā-tūra, 'arming,' 'equipment,' from armā-re, 'to arm'; nā-tūra, 'birth,' 'nature,' from nā-scī,⁴ 'to be born'; scrīp-tūra, for scrīb-tūra,5 'writing,' from scrīb-ere, 'to write'; āc-tus, for ag-tus,6 'driving,' 'act,' from ag-ere, 'to drive,' 'act'; āc-tus, for ag-tus,6 'driving,' 'act,' from for ag-ere, 'to admonishing,' from monē-re, 'to admonish'; mon-itus, 'admonition,' from monē-re, 'to admonish'; mon-itus, 'admonition,' from monē-re, 'to admonish'; opin-ārī, 'to think'; opt-tō, 'choice,' from opt-āre, 'to choose.'

327. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed nouns with the suffixes—

or, us, ēs, iēs, ium, en, men, mentum, mōnia, mōnium, bulum, culum, brum, rorum, num.8

¹ O and \tilde{o} , the stems of us and a, are only different forms of the suffix a; and $\tilde{o}n$, the ctem of \tilde{o} , $\tilde{o}nis$, is from the suffix an; see 320.

² Root vic.

³ With the compound suffix es-trum, from as-tra; see as and tra, 320.

⁴ Root nā.

⁵ See 33, 1.

⁶ Observe change in quantity: ag-ere, āc-tus; see Gellius, IX., 6.

⁷ On the forms bulum, brum, culum, crum, see 35, 2, foot-note 3.

⁸ On or (for os), us, and $\tilde{e}s$, see as; on $i\tilde{e}s$ and ium, see ja; on en, see an; on men_i mentum, $m\tilde{o}nia$, and $m\tilde{o}nium$, see man; on num, see na—all in 320; on bulum, $brum_i$ culum, $crum_i$, see Corssen, II., p. 40.

am-or, tim-or, gen-us, frīgus, sēd-ēs, fac-iēs, gaud-ium, stud-ium, pect-en,	love, fear, fear, birth, cold, seat, make, face, joy, zeal, study, a comb,	from	am-āre, tim-ēre, gen in gign-ere, frīg-ere, sed-ēre, fac-āre, gaud-ēre, pect-ere,	to love. to fear. to bear, to be cold. to sit. to make. to rejoice. to be zealous to comb.
örnä-mentum, queri-mönia, ali-mönium, vočä-bulum, vehi-culum, dēlū-brum, simulä-crum, rēg-num,	ornament, complaint, nourishment, appellation, vehicle, shrine, image, reign,	66 66 66 66 66	ōrnā-re, querī, ale-re, vocā-re, vehe-re, dēlu-ere, simulā-re, reg-ere,	to adorn, to complain, to nourish, to call, to carry, to cleanse, to represent, to rule.

- 1. Or, us, ēs, iēs, and ium generally designate the action or state denoted by the verb, but ēs, iēs, and ium sometimes designate the result of the action: aedificium, 'edifice,' from aedific-āre, 'to build.'
- 2. Men, mentum, monia, monium, and num generally designate the MEANS of the action, or its involuntary subject, sometimes the act itself, or its result: flu-men, 'a stream,' 'something which flows,' from flu-ere; ag-men, 'an army in motion,' from ag-ere.

Note.—The stem or root is sometimes shortened or changed: $m\bar{o}$ -mentum, 'moving force,' from mov- $\bar{e}re$.

3. Bulum, culum, brum, and crum designate the Instrument of the PLACE of the action: vehi-culum, 'vehicle' (instrument of the action), from vehe-re; sta-bulum, 'stall' (place of the action), from stā-re.

Note.—The vowel of the stem is sometimes changed: sepul-crum, 'sepulchre,' from $sepel-\bar{\epsilon}re$, 'to bury'; see 24, 3.

4. In culum, c is dropped after c and g: vinc-ulum, 'a bond,' from vinc-zre; reg-ula, 'rule,' from reg-ere.

Note.— $D\check{o}$, la, $\bar{a}g\check{o}$, $\bar{i}g\check{o}$, $\bar{i}g\check{o}$, and a few other endings also occur: $torp\bar{e}$ - $d\check{o}$, 'numbness,' from $torp\bar{e}$ -re, 'to be numb'; $cup\bar{i}$ - $d\check{o}$, 'desire,' from cupe-re, 'to desire'; $cand\bar{e}$ -la, 'candle,' from $cand\bar{e}$ -re, 'to shine'; vor- $\bar{a}g\check{o}$, 'whirlpool,' from vor- $\bar{a}re$, 'to swallow up; vert- $\bar{i}g\check{o}$, 'a turn,' from vert-ere, 'to turn.'

5. Other Examples are—

Splend-or, 'brightness,' from splend-ère, 'to be bright'; op-us, 'work,' from the root op for ap, 'work'; dec-us, 'ornament,' from root dec, in dec-et,

¹ In several of these examples the noun is not strictly derived from the verb, but both noun and verb are formed from one common root, as *frīg-us* and *frīg-ere* from the root *frīg*.

² Sed-ēre and sēd-ēs show a variable root-vowel-e, ē; see 20, note 2.

⁸ See Corssen, I., p. 577; II., pp. 802, 303.

it is becoming'; nūb-ēs, 'cloud,' from the root nūb in nūb-ere, 'to veil'; spec-ies, 'look,' from spec-ere, 'to look'; effug-ium, 'escape,' from effug-ere, 'to escape'; imper-ium, 'command,' from imper-āre, 'to command'; eertāmen, 'contest,' from certā-re, 'to contend'; documentum,' 'lesson,' 'document,' from doce-re, 'to teach'; nūtrī-mentum, 'nourishment,' from nūtrī-re, 'to nourish'; pā-bulum, 'fodder,' from the root pā in pā-scere, 'to feed'; spectā-culum, 'sight,' from spectā-re, 'to behold'; lu-crum, 'gain,' from lu-ere, 'to pay'; dō-num,' 'gift,' from the root da in da-re, 'to give.'

FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES BY SUFFIXES.

I. Adjectives from Nouns.

328. Fullness.—Adjectives denoting fullness, abundance, supply, generally end in—

	ōsus, cōsus,	lēns, len	itus, tus. ²	
anim-ōsus,	full of courage	from	animus,	spirit, courage
frūctu-osus,	fruitful,	46	frūctus,	fruit.
belli-cosus,	warlike,	"	bellum,	war.
pesti-lēns,	pestilential,	. "	pestis,	pest.
pesti-lentus,	" "	66	" "	- "
vīno-lentus,	full of wine,	64	vīnum,	wine.
fraudu-lentus,	fraudulent,	66	fraus,	fraud.
ālā-tus,	winged,	"	āla,	wing.
turrī-tus,	turreted,	44	turris,	turret.
cornū-tus,	horned,	66	cornũ,	horn.
jūs-tus,	just,	"	jūs,	right.

Note.—Before $\bar{o}sus$ the stem-vowel is generally dropped, but u is retained: anime $\bar{o}sus$, $anime\bar{o}sus$, but $fr\bar{u}ctu-\bar{o}sus$.

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Ann-ōsus, 'full of years,' from annus, 'year'; luxuri-ōsus, 'luxurious,' from luxuria, 'luxury'; pericul-ōsus, 'dangerous,' from periculum, 'danger'; tenebr-ōsus and tenebri-ōsus, 'gloomy,' from tenebrae, 'gloom'; turbu-lentus, 'riotous,' from turba, 'riot'; barbā-tus, 'bearded,' from barba, 'beard'; auri-tus, 'long eared,' from auris, 'ear'; onus-tus, 'burdened,' from onus, 'burden.'

(329.) MATERIAL.—Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made generally end in—

¹ With modified stem or root: docē, docu; da, dō.

² On õsus, see Schleicher, p. 403; Corssen, I., p. 62; II., p. 688. Cōsus is from co and ōsus; thus from bellum, 'war,' is formed belli-cus, 'belonging to war'; and from belli-cus is formed belli-cōsus, belli-cōsus, 'warlike.' On lēns, lentus, see ra, la, 320. The vowel before lēns, lentus—generally u, sometimes o or i—was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, as in vīno-lentus, pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus, but it was sometimes treated as a part of the suffix: ri-olentus, 'violent,' from vīs, 'force.' Tus is identical with tus in the passive participle, and when added to vowel-stems is preceded by ā, ī, or ū: ālā-tus, turrī-tus, cornū-tus, like amā-tus, audī-tus, acū-tus ('sharpened,' from acu-o, 'tō sharpen'). It may, however, be added to consonant-stems: jūs-tus.

eus, nus, neus, āceus, icius.1

aur-eus, argent-eus, fāg-eus, fāgi-nus, ²	golden, of silver, of beech,	from "	aurum, argentum, fāgus,	gold. silver. a beech.
fāgi-neus,2	66	66 .		46
pōpul-nus,3	of poplar,	66	põpulus,	a poplar.
põpul-neus,3	"	66	"	- 66
papyr-āceus,	of papyrus,	46	papyrus,	papyrus.
later-icius,	of brick,	"	later,	brick.

Note.—These endings sometimes denote *characteristic* or *possession*: *virgineus*, 'belonging to a maiden.'

330. Characteristic.—Adjectives signifying belonging to, derived from, generally end in—

cus, icus, ālis, īlis, ānus, īnus, āris, ārius, ius, ēnsis.4

		,	, ,	
cīvi-cus,	relating to a citizen,	from	cīvis,	citizen.
patr-icus,	paternal,	66	pater.	father.
nātūr-ālis,	natural,	66	nātūra,	nature.
mort-ālis,	mortal,	46	mors,	death.
host-īlis,	hostile,	66	hostis,	enemy.
cīv-īlis.	relating to a citizen,	66	cīvis,	citizen.
oppid-ānus,	of the town,	. "	- '-	
A A /		46	oppidum,	town.
urb-ānus,	of the city,	"	urbs,	city.
mar-īnus,	marine,		mare,	sea.
equ-inus,	of, pertaining to a horse,	66	equus,	horse.
lūn-āris,	lunar,	- 66	lūna,	moon.
salūt-āris,	salutary,	66	salūs,	safety.
auxili-ārius,	auxiliary,	"	auxilium,	aid.
rēg-ius,	royal,	46	rēx.	king.
ōrātōr-ius,	of an orator,	"	ōrātor.5	orator.
for-ēnsis,	forensic,	66	forum,	forum.
201 02010,	Jorenace,		Torum,	Jorani.

¹ On eus, stem eo, see Corssen, II., pp. 342-346; Bopp, III., p. 429; on nus, see na, 320. Neus adds eus to no, seen in nus; āceus adds eus to āc, seen in āx (333, foot-note 2); and ic-ius adds ius to ic or ico; see ja, 320, and icus, 330.

² Stem-vowel changed to *i* before nus and neus.

³ Stem-vowel dropped before nus and neus.

⁴ On cus, see ka, 320. In i-cus, i was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, but was finally treated as a part of the suffix, as in patr-icus. In the same way the vowels & and \(\tilde{i}\) in \(\tilde{d}iis, \tilde{d}iis, \tilde{a}iis, \tilde{a}ris, \tilde{a}rius, \tilde{a}nus, and \(\tilde{r}nus\) were developed from the stem-vowels of the primitives; thus in such words as \(doc-i-is, \tilde{d}cotle, \tilde{f}rom \) \(doc-i-re, \tilde{t}s\) uses treated as a part of the suffix, making \(tilde{t}iis. \) If now \(iiis\) be added to \(hosti, \tilde{t}s\) the stem of \(hostis, \tilde{w}s\) we shall have \(hosti-ilis. = host-ilis; \) or, with Corssen, we may suppose that from \(hostis \tilde{w} \) was formed the verb \(hosti-re, \tilde{a}n\) dhat the ending \(iis \tilde{w} \) was added directly to \(hosti, \tilde{m} \) making \(hosti-lis. \)
The long initial vowel in other endings is supposed to have had a similar origin. \(Alis, \tilde{u}is, \tilde{a}n\) \(doc-inter(a) \tilde{a} \tilde{v} \) in the resulting as \(i \tilde{a} \tilde{n} \tilde{d} \tilde{n} \tilde{d} \

⁵ But $\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ -tor is formed from $\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ -re by adding tor to the stem; see 326.

- 1. Ester or estris,¹ timus, itimus, itous,² cinus, and a few other endings occur: terr-ester or terr-estris, 'terrestrial,' from terra, 'earth'; maritimus, 'maritime,' from mare, 'sea'; lēg-itimus, 'lawful,' from lēx, lēgis, 'law'; rūs-ticus, 'rustic,' from rūs, 'country'; vāti-cinus, 'prophetic,' from vātēs, 'prophet.'
 - 2. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Domini-cus, 'of a master,' from dominus, 'master'; serv-īlis, 'slavish,' from servus, 'slave'; vir-īlis, 'manly,' from vir, 'man'; capit-ālis, 'of the head,' 'capital,' from caput, 'head'; rēg-ālis, 'kingly,' from rēx, 'king'; consul-āris, 'consular,' from cōnsul, 'consul'; milit-āris, 'military,' from mīles, 'soldier'; agr-ārius, 'of or relating to land,' from ager, 'field'; argentārius, 'of silver,' from argentum, 'silver'; can-īnus, 'of a dog,' from canis, 'dog'; lup-īnus, 'of a wolf,' from lupus, 'wolf'; mont-ānus, 'of a mountain,' from mōns, 'mountain'; nox-ius, 'injurious,' from noxa, 'injury'; patr-ius, 'of a father,' from pater, 'father'; imperātōr-ius, 'of a commander,' from imperātor, 'commander.'

331. Adjectives from proper nouns generally end in—

ānus, iānus, īnus; ius, iacus, icus; ēnsis, iēnsis; ās, aeus, ēus.3

Sull-ānus,	of Sulla,	from	Sulla,	Sulla.
Rom-anus,	Koman,	66	Rōma,	Rome.
Mari-ānus,	of Marius,	46	Marius,	Marius.
Ciceron-ianus,	Ciceronian,	46	Cicero,	Cicero.
Lat-īnus,2	Latin,	46	Latium,	Latium.
Plaut-īnus,	of Plautus,	66	Plautus,	Plautus.
Corinth-ius,	Corinthian,	"	Corinthus,	Corinth.
Corinth-iacus,	"	66	66	66
Britann-icus,	British,	44	Britannus,	a Briton.
Cann-ēnsis,	of Cannae,	66	Cannae,	Cannae.
Athēn-iensis,	Athenian,	46	Athēnae,	Athens.
Fīdēn-ās,	of Fidenae,	66	Fīdēnae,	Fidenae.
Smyrn-aeus,	Smyrnean,	66	Smyrna,	Smyrna.
Pythagor-eus,	Pythagorean,	44	Pythagoras,	Pythagoras.

1. Ānus and iānus are the endings generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but others also occur.

Note 1.—Many of these adjectives from names of places are also used substantively as *Patrial* or *Gentile Nouns* to designate the citizens of the place: *Corinthii*, the Corinthians; *Athēniēnsēs*, the Athenians.

Note 2.—The Roman Gentës or clans were all designated by adjectives in ius, as gens Cornelia, gens Julia.

- ¹ The ending ester or estris may be formed by adding ter or tris to es from the suffix as (320); but see Corssen, II., p. 549.
 - 2 On ti-mus, i-ti-mus, and ti-cus, see ta, ma, ca, 320.

² When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the stem-vowel: Sall-ānus. In fact, ānus is formed by the union of the stem-vowel with the suffix. So in Mari-ānus, but in examples like this the i before ānus was finally treated as a part of the suffix, making tānus, as seen in Cicerōn-tānus. Īnus in Lat-īnus contains io, from Lat-io, the stem of Latium.

Note 8.—An adjective in *ius*, used substantively, formed a part of the name of every distinguished Roman, and designated the $g\bar{e}ns$ to which he belonged; see *Roman Names*, **649**.

II. ADJECTIVES FROM ADJECTIVES.

332. DIMINUTIVES from other adjectives generally end like diminutive nouns (321) in—

lus, ulus, culus,1

ēbrio-lus, aureo-lus,	somewhat drunken, golden.	from	ēbrius,	drunken
long-ulus,	rather long,	"	longus.	golden. long.
pauper-culus,	rather poor,	64	pauper,	poor.

Note 1.—The endings ellus and illus also occur as in nouns (321, 4): nov-ellus, 'new,' from novus, 'new.'

Note 2.—Culus is sometimes added to comparatives: $d\bar{u}rius$ -culus, 'somewhat hard,' from $d\bar{u}rior$, $d\bar{v}rius$, 'harder.'

III. ADJECTIVES FROM VERBS AND FROM ROOTS.

333. Verbal adjectives generally end in-

bundus, cundus, dus; bilis, tilis, silis, lis; āx.2

	, , ,	,	7	
mīrā-bundus,	wondering,	from	mīrā-rī,	to wonder.
mori-bundus,	dying,	. "	morī,	to die.
verē-cundus,	diffident,	44	verē-rī,	to fear.
cali-dus,	warm,	"	calē-re,	to be warm
pavi-dus,	fearful,	.66	pavē-re.	to fear.
amā-bilis,	worthy of love,	66	amā-re,	to love.
dūc-tilis,	ductile,	"	dūc-ere,	to lead.
flec-silis, ³ } flexilis,	flexible,	"	flect-ere,	to turn.
doci-lis,	docile,	- 66	docē-re.	to teach.
pūgn-āx,	pugnacious,	"	pūgnā-re,	to fight.
aud-āx,	daring,	66 11	audē-re,	to dare.

- 1. Bundus and cundus have nearly the force of the present participle; but bundus is somewhat more expressive than the participle: laetā-bundus, rejoicing greatly; and cundus generally denotes some characteristic rather than a single act or feeling; verē-cundus, diffident.
 - 2. Dus retains the simple meaning of the verb.
- 3. Bilis, tilis, silis, and lis denote CAPABILITY, generally in a passive sense: amābilis, capable or worthy of being loved; sometimes in an active sense: terribilis, terrible, capable of producing terror.

¹ See p. 158, foot-note 6.

² Bundus is explained by Corssen and others as formed by appending undus, endus, the Gerundive suffix, to bu=fu, as seen in $fu\bar{\imath}$; cundus, by adding the same suffix to oo (ka, 320); see Corssen, II., pp. 310–312. On dus, see Corssen, II., pp. 302, 303; on this, see ra, la, 320; and on bilis, 320, foot-note 1; also Corssen, I., pp. 166–169; on tilis and sitis, Corssen, II., pp. 41, 326. The ending $dx = \bar{a}$ -c-s is for \bar{a} -co-s, in which \bar{a} was originally the stem-vowel of an \bar{a} -nerb · thus $p\bar{u}gn$ -a-co-s becomes $p\bar{u}gn\bar{a}$ -cs, $p\bar{u}gn\bar{u}$ -cs, $p\bar{u}$

³ Flec-silis = flect-tilis; see 35, 3, 2).

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- 4. Ax denotes inclination, generally a faulty one: loquax, loquacious.
- 5. Cus, īcus, ūcus, vus, uus, īvus, tīvus, tīcius, ius, and ulus¹ also occur:

Medi-cus, 'healing,' 'medical,' from medè-rī, 'to heal'; am-īcus, 'friend-ly,' from am-āre, 'to love'; cad-ūcus, 'falling,' 'inclined to fall,' from cadere, 'to fall'; ɛal-vus, 'safe,' from root sal, 'whole,' 'sound'; noc-uus and noc-īvus, 'hurtful,' from noc-ēre, 'to hurt'; cap-tīvus, 'captive,' from cap-ere, 'to take'; fictīcius, for fig-tīcius, 'feigned,' from fig, the root of fing-ere, 'to form,' 'fashion,' 'feign'; exim-ius, 'select,' 'choice,' from exim-ere, 'to select out'; crēd-ulus, 'credulous,' from crēd-ere, 'to believe.'

6. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Lūdi-bundus, 'sportive,' 'playful,' from lūde-re, 'to play'; rīdi-bundus, 'laughing,' from rīdē-re, 'to laugh'; fū-cundus, 'eloquent,' from fā-rī, 'to speak'; jū-cundus, for juv-cundus, 'pleasant,' from juv-ūre, 'to aid,' 'delight'; avi-dus, 'greedy,' from avē-re, 'to long for'; cupi-dus, 'desirous,' from cupe-re, 'to desire'; timi-dus, 'timid,' from timē-re, 'to fear'; faci-lis, 'easy,' 'capable of being done,' from fae-re, 'to do'; nūbi-lis, 'mariage-able,' from nūbe-re, 'to marry'; ūti-lis, 'useful,' from ūtī, 'to use'; crēdibilis, 'credible,' from crēde-re, 'to believe'; terri-bilis, 'terrible,' from terrē-re, 'to terrify'; laudā-bilis, 'praiseworthy,' from laudā-re, 'to praise'; fertilis, 'fertile,' from fer-re, 'to bear'; cap-ūx, 'capacious,' from cap-ere, 'to take'; ten-āx, 'tenacious,' from ten-ēre, 'to hold.'

IV. Adjectives from Adverbs and Prepositions.

334. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and prepositions:²

crās-tinus, contrā-rius, inter-nus, super-bus, super-nus,	of to-morrow, contrary, internal, haughty, upper,	from	crās, contrā, inter, super,	to-morrow. against. among, within. above.
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FORMATION OF VERBS BY SUFFIXES.

I. Verbs from Nouns and Adjectives.

335. Verbs formed from nouns and adjectives are called DE-NOMINATIVES. They end in—

Conj. I.	CONJ. II.	Conj. III.	CONJ. IV.		
ō, ã-re,	eō, ē-re,	uō, ue-re,³	iō, ī-re.4		

- ¹ Vus, uus, and $\tilde{\imath}$ -vus are only different forms of the same suffix; uus was formed by Vocalizing v in vus; $\tilde{\imath}$ -vus, by adding vus to the stem-vowel $\tilde{\imath}$; noc- $\tilde{\imath}$ -vus, as if from a Verb, noc- $\tilde{\imath}$ re = noc- $\tilde{\imath}$ re. The other endings are composed of elements already explained.
 - ² But adverbs and prepositions are in origin case-forms; see 304; 307, note 1.
 - 3 Conjugation III. contains primitive verbs with a few derivatives.
- 4 According to Curtius and others, the suffix which was added to the stems of nouns and adjectives to form verbs was originally ja, pronounced ya, probably identical with is

cūr-ō,	ā-re,	to care for,	from	cūr-a,	care.
fug-ō,	ā-re,	to put to flight,	- 66	fug-a,	flight.
pūgn-ō,	ā-re,	to fight,	- 66	pūgn-a,	battle.
bell-ō,	ā-re,	to carry on war,	"	bell-um,	war.
dōn-ō,	ā-re,	to give,		dön-um,	gift.
firm-ō,	ā-re,	to make firm,	66	firm-us,	firm.
labor-o,	ā-re,	to labor,	46	labor,	labor.
līber-ō,	ã-re,	to liberate.	66	līber,	free.
nomin-o,	ā-re,	to name,	66	nömen,	name.
alb-eō,	ē-re,	to be white,	44	alb-us,	white.
clār-ō,	ā-re,	to make bright,	46	elār-us,	bright.
clār-eō,	ē-re,	to be bright,	44	. "	ii.
flör-eö,	ē-re,	to bloom,	"	flōs,	flower.
lūc-eō,	ē-re,	to shine,	66	lūx=lūc-s,	light.
met-uō,	ue-re,	to fear,	"	met-us,	fear.
stat-uō,	ue-re,	to place,	46	stat-us,	position.
fīn-iō,	ī-re,	to finish.	44	fīn-is,	end.
moll-īō,	ī-re,	to soften,	66	moll-is,	soft.
vest-iō,	ī-re,	to clothe,	46	vest-is,	garment.
serv-iō,	ī-re,	to serve,	66	serv-us,	servant.
cūstōd-iō,	ī-re,	to guard,	46	cūstōs,	guardian.

NOTE 1.—Denominatives of the second conjugation are intransitive, but most of the others are transitive.

Note 2.—Derivatives, like other verbs, may of course be deponent: dominor, $\tilde{a}r\tilde{\epsilon}$, 'to domineer,' from dominus, 'master'; $m\tilde{\epsilon}ror$, $\tilde{a}r\tilde{\epsilon}$, 'to wonder at,' from $m\tilde{\epsilon}rus$, 'wonderful'; partior, $\tilde{\epsilon}r\tilde{\epsilon}$, 'to part,' 'divide,' from pars, partis, 'part.'

1. Other Examples are-

Culp-āre, 'to find fault,' from culp-a, 'fault'; glōri-ārē, 'to boast,' 'glory,' from glōri-a, 'glory'; nov-āre, 'to make new,' from novus, 'new'; rēgn-āre, 'to reign,' from rēgnum, 'royal power'; lev-āre, 'to lighten,' from lenis, 'light'; honōr-āre, 'to honor,' from honor, 'honor'; laud-āre, 'to praise,' from laus = laud-s, 'praise'; saev-ēre, 'to be fierce,' from saevus, 'fierce.'

the root of $\bar{\imath}$ -re, 'to go.' This suffix added to α , the original stem-vowel of most nouns and adjectives, formed a-ja, still preserved in the ending ajā-mi in a large class of Sanskrit verbs. From this compound suffix aja are derived in Latin, in the first conjugation, (1) $a\bar{o}$, contracted to \bar{o} : $c\bar{u}r$ - \bar{o} = $c\bar{u}r$ - $aj\bar{o}$ for $c\bar{u}r$ - $a\bar{o}$ for $c\bar{u}r$ - $aj\bar{o}$; (2) \bar{a} : $c\bar{u}r$ - \bar{a} -s, shortened to a in cūr-a-t for cūr-ā-t;—in the second conjugation, (1) eō: lūc-eō for lūcejō for lūc-aja; (2) ē: lūc-ē-s, shortened to e in lūc-e-t for lūc-ē-t; and in the fourth conjugation, (1) io and iu: serv-io for serv-ijo for serv-aja, serv-iu-nt for serv-iju-nt for serv-aju-nt; and (2) i: serv-i-s, shortened to i in serv-i-t for serv-i-t; see Bopp, I., pp. 207-229; Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 202, 326-348; Schleicher, pp. 358-361. For an objection to this explanation of the a-verbs, see Corssen, II., pp. 733-736. - On final o of the first person, see 247, 1, foot-note 5.—The suffix ja, added to original i-stems, formed ija and gave rise to *i-verbs*: $f\bar{\imath}ni\bar{o} = f\bar{\imath}n-ij\bar{o} = f\bar{\imath}n-ija$; and added to *u-stems*, it formed u-ja and gave rise to u-verbs: met- $u\bar{o} = met$ -u-j $\bar{o} = met$ -u-ja.—In general, a-stems give rise to a-verbs: cūr-a, cūr-ā-re; o-stems, sometimes to a-verbs, sometimes to e-verbs, and sometimes to i-verbs: firmus, stem firmo, firm-ū-re; albus, stem alb-o, alb-ē-re; servus, stem serv-o, serv-i-re; consonant stems, to a-verbs, e-verbs, or i-verbs, after the analogy of vowel stems: labor for labor, labor-ā-re; fics, flor-ā-re for flos-ē-re (31, 1); cūstos, stem cūstod, cūstod-ī-re.

VERBS. 171

II. Verbs from Verbs.1

336. FREQUENTATIVES or INTENSIVES denote repeated, continued, or intense action. They are generally of the first conjugation, and are formed—

I. From the stem of the participle 2 in tus or sus:

```
to sing.3
         are, to sing,
                                   from cantus
                                                    from cano.
cant-ō.
         are, to snatch.
                                                           capiō,
                                                                   to take.
capt-ō,
                                          captus
                                     66
                                                      66
                                                           dō,
dat-ō,
         are, to give often,
                                          datus
                                                                    to give.
                                     66
habit-ō, āre, to inhabit,
                                          habitus
                                                           habeo, to have.
quass-ō, āre, to shake violently,
                                     66
                                          quassus
                                                           quatio, to shake.
                                                           terreo, to frighten,
territ-o, are, to frighten often,
                                          territus
```

II. From the present stem, by adding to and changing the preceding vowel to i, if not already in that form: 4

agi-tō,	āre,	to shake,	from	agō,	to move, lead.
clāmi-tō,	äre,	to shout often,	-66	clāmō,	to shout.
rogi-tō,	āre,	to ask eagerly,	44	rogō,	to ask.
voci-tō,	āre,	to call often,	44	vocö,	to call.
voli-tō,	āre,	to flit about,	66	volō,	to fly.

Note 1.—Frequentatives are sometimes formed from other frequentatives: 5 cantitō, to sing often,' from cantō from canō; dictitō, 'to say often,' from dictō from diccō.

Note 2.—A few derivatives in \(\tilde{e}ss\tilde{o}\) and \(iss\tilde{o}\) also occur. They are intensive in force, denoting earnest rather than repeated action, and are of the third conjugation: facio, facess\tilde{o}\, 'to do earnestly'; incipio, incipiss\tilde{o}\, 'to begin eagerly.'

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Dictō, 'to say often,' from dīcō, 'to say'; spectō, 'to behold,' from speciō, 'to look at'; factitō, 'to do often,' from faciō, 'to do,' 'make'; imperitō, 'to command often,' from imperō, 'to command'; raptō, 'to snatch,' from raptō, 'to seize.'

337. INCEPTIVES OF INCHOATIVES denote the beginning of the action. They are of the third conjugation, and end in sco:

¹ Either directly or through the medium of nouns, adjectives, or participles.

² They are thus strictly denominatives (335). Intransitive verbs, though without the participle in tus or sus, may form frequentatives after the analogy of transitive verbs: curso, āre, 'to run about,' formed as if from cursus from curro, 'to come,' to come often,' formed as if from ventus, from vento, 'to come,'

³ Remember that the stem of the participle ends in o; thus cantus = canto-s. Observe, therefore, that the verb $cant\bar{o}$, 'I sing,' is in form like the stem of the participle. $Cant\bar{o}$ was, however, originally produced by adding ja to canta, the original stem of cantus, making canta-ja, $canta\bar{jo}$, $canta\bar{o}$, $cant\bar{o}$; see also 335, foot-note.

⁴ The formation from the participle was doubtless the original method, but at length $t\bar{o}$ was regarded as the suffix, and was accordingly added to present stems, and as in many cases i preceded, the stem-vowel finally took this form before the suffix $t\bar{o}$; see Corssen, IL, p. 297.

Sometimes from frequentatives no longer in use: āctitō, 'to act often,' as if from āctō, not in use, from agō; scrīptitō, 'to write often,' as if from scrīptō, not in use, from scrīptō.

gel-ā-scō, cal-ē-scō, rub-ē-scō, vir-ē-scō,	to begin to freeze, to become warm, to grow red, to grow green,	from	gel-ō, cal-eō, rub-eō, vir-eō,	ē-re, ē-re,	to be red.
trem-ī-scō, obdorm-ī-scō,	to begin to tremble, to fall asleep,	66	trem-ō, obdorm-iō,		to be green. to tremble. to sleep.

338. Desideratives denote a *desire* to perform the action. They are of the fourth conjugation, and end in turio or surio:

par-turiō, īre, to strive to bring forth, from pariō, to bring forth. ē-suriō, īre, to desire to eat, "edō, to eat."

339. DIMINUTIVES denote a *feeble* action.² They are of the first conjugation, and end in illō:

cant-illó, to sing feebly, from cantō, to sing. conscrib-illó, to scribble, "conscribō, to write.

NOTE.—For the DERIVATION OF ADVERES, see 304.

SECTION III.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

340. New words may be formed—

I. By the union of two or more words under one principal accent, without change of meaning:

Res publica, respublica, republic; agrī cultūra, agrīcultūra, agrīcultūre; jūris consultus, jūrisconsultus, lawyer, one skilled in the law; quem ad modum, quemadmodum, in what way—lit., to what measure.

Note.—These are compounds only in form. The separate words retain in a great measure their identity both in form and in meaning, and may in fact be written separately. $R\bar{e}s~p\bar{u}blica$ is the approved form. Other examples of this class are: $l\bar{e}gis-l\bar{u}tor$, law-giver; $pater-famili\bar{u}s$, father of a family; $sen\bar{u}t\bar{u}s$ -consultum, decree of the senate; $h\bar{u}e$ -tenus, thus far; $saepe-numer\bar{o}$, often in number; $bene-faci\bar{o}$, to do well, benefit; $male-dic\bar{o}$, to revile; $satis-faci\bar{o}$, to satisfy, do enough for; $animum-ad-vert\bar{o}$, $anim-ad-vert\bar{o}$, to notice, turn the mind to.

II. By prefixing an indeclinable particle to an inflected word, generally with some change of meaning:

Ad-sum, to be present; $d\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{o}n\bar{o}$, to lay down; re- $p\bar{o}n\bar{o}$, to replace; \bar{e} - $disc\bar{o}$, to learn by heart; im-memor, unmindful; per-facilis, very easy; $pr\bar{o}$ - $c\bar{o}nsul$,

¹ These are the only desideratives in common use, but a few others occur: $c\bar{e}n\bar{a}$ -turi \bar{o} , 'to desire to dine,' from $c\bar{e}n\bar{o}$, 'to dine'; $\bar{e}mp$ -turi \bar{o} , 'to desire to purchase,' from $em\bar{o}$, 'to purchase'; $n\bar{u}p$ -turi \bar{o} , 'to desire to marry,' from $n\bar{u}\bar{b}\bar{o}$, 'to marry.' They were probably formed originally through the medium of a verbal noun in tor or sor (326, foot-note 2): thus, $c\bar{e}n\bar{o}$, $c\bar{e}n\bar{u}$ -tor, 'one who dines'; $c\bar{e}n\bar{u}$ -tor- \bar{i} -re $=c\bar{e}n\bar{u}$ -tur- \bar{i} -re (o changed to u), 'to desire to dine'; $em\bar{o}$, $\bar{e}mp$ -tor, 'a purchaser'; $\bar{e}mp$ -tor- \bar{i} -re $=\bar{e}mp$ -tur- \bar{i} -re, 'to desire to purchase.'

² Probably denominatives formed from verb-stems through diminutive verbal nouns.

proconsul, one acting for a consul; inter-regnum, interregnum, an interval between two reigns.

III. By uniting two or more simple stems or roots, and adding appropriate inflectional suffixes when needed:

Igni-color,¹ fire-colored; grandi-aevo-s,¹ grand-aevus, a, um, of great age; omni-potent-s, omnipotents, omnipotent; māgno-animo-s, māgnanimus, a, um, great-souled; tubi-cen, trumpeter; arti-fec-s, artifex, artificer; alio-quī, aliquis,² any one.

- 1. In the first element of the compound observe—
- That the stem-vowel generally takes the form of i: capro-corno-s, capri-cornus; tuba-cen, tubi-cen.
- 2) That consonant stems sometimes assume $i:hon\"{o}r-i-fico-s, hon\~{o}rificus,$ a,um,honorable.
- 3) That the stem-vowel disappears before another vowel: māgno-animus, māgnanimus.
- 2. The stem-ending and the inflectional ending of the second element generally remain unchanged in the compound; see examples above. But observe—
- 1) That they are sometimes slightly changed: aequo-nocti, aequi-noctio-m, aequinoctium, equinox; multa-fōrma, multi-fōrmis, with many forms.
- 2) That a verbal root or stem may be the second element in a compound noun or adjective: tubi-cen (cen = can, the root of $can\bar{o}$, to sing), trumpeter; $l\bar{e}ti-fer$ (fer, root of $fer\bar{o}$, to bear), death-bearing.

Note.—The words classed under II. and III. are regarded as real compounds, but those under III. best illustrate the distinctive characteristics of genuine compounds, as they are formed from compound stems and have a meaning which could not be expressed by the separate words. Thus, magnus animus means a great soul, but magnanimus means having a great soul.

341. In Compound Nouns, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second part is the stem of a noun, or a stem from a verbal root:

arti-fex,	artist,	from	arti-fac	in	ars	and	faciō.
capri-cornus,	capricorn,	44	capro-cornu	66	caper	46	cornū.
aequi-noctium,	equinox,	"	aequo-nocti	4.6	aequus	66	nox.
nē-mŏ,	nobody,	44	ne-homon	66	nē	66	homŏ.
prō-nōmen,	pronoun,	44	prö-nömen	66	prō	66	nömen.

¹ Thus igni-color is formed by the union of two stems without inflectional suffix; but in grand-aevu-s, the suffix s is added to the stem grandaevö, compounded of grandi and aevö.

² Literally, any other one.

³ Ti, the stem-ending of nox, becomes $ti\check{o}$, to which is added the nominative-ending m.

⁴ Class II. occupies a position intermediate between I. and III. Some compounds of particles with verbs, for example, have developed a meaning quite distinct from that denoted by the separate parts, while others have simply retained the ordinary meaning of those parts.

1. COMPOUNDS in ex, dex, fex, cen, cida, and cola deserve special notice:

Rēmo-ex, rēmex,¹ oarsman; jūs-dex, jūdex,¹ judge; arti-fex, artist; tībia-cen, tībī-cen,² flute-player; homon-cīda, homi-cīda,³ manslayer; agri-cola,⁴ husbandman, one who tills the soil.

Note.—Ex (for ag-s) is from the root ag in $ag\delta$, to drive, impel; dex (for dic-s), from dic in $dic\delta$, to make known; fex (for fac-s), from fac in $faci\delta$, to make; cen, from can in $can\delta$, to sing; $c\bar{i}da$ (for caed-a), from caed in $caed\delta$, to cut, slay; cola (for col-a), from col in $col\delta$, to cultivate.

342. In Compound Adjectives, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second is the stem of a noun or adjective, or a stem from a verbal root:

lēti-fer, death-bearing, from lēti-fer in lētum and ferō. māgn-animus, magnanimous, "māgno-animo" māgnus "animus per-facilis, very easy, "per-facili" per "facilis.

1. Compounds in ceps, fer, ger, dicus, ficus, and volus deserve notice:

Parti-ceps, taking part; auri-fer, gold-bearing; armi-ger, carrying arms; fāti-dicus, predicting fate; mīri-ficus, causing wonder; bene-volus, well-wishing.

Note.—Ceps (for cap-s) is from the root cap in capiō, to take; fer, from fer in ferō, to bear; ger, from ger in gerō, to carry; dicus (for dic-o-s), from dic in dicō, to make known; ficus (for fac-o-s), from fac in faciō, to make; volus (for vol-o-s), from vol in volō, to wish.

- 343. Compound Nouns and Adjectives are divided according to signification into three classes:
- I. DETERMINATIVE COMPOUNDS, in which the second part is qualified by the first:

Inter-rex, interrex; merī-dies, midday; bene-volus, well-wishing; per-māgnus, very great; in-dīgnus, unworthy.

II. OBJECTIVE COMPOUNDS, in which the second part is limited by the first as object:

Prīn-ceps, taking the first place; belli-ger, waging war; jū-dex, judge, one who dispenses (makes known) justice; homi-cida, one who slays a man; agri-cola, one who tills the field. See other examples in 342, 1.

III. Possessive Compounds, in origin mostly adjectives. They design

¹ O is dropped in remex, and s in judex; see 27; 36, 3, note 8.

² A, weakened to i, unites with the preceding i, forming $\bar{\imath}$.

³ N dropped, and o weakened to i; see 36, 3, note 3.

⁴ The stem-vower o of agro is weakened to i. agri; see 22.

⁵ From medius and dies.

nate qualities or attributes as possessed by some person or thing, and are often best rendered by supplying having or possessing:

Aeni-pēs, having bronze feet; ¹ celeri-pēs, swift-footed; āli-pēs, wing-footed, having wings for feet; māgn-animus, having a great soul; ūn-animus, having one mind; long-acous, of great age, having a long life.

344. Compound Veres.—Verbs in general are compounded only with prepositions, originally adverbs: ²

Ab- $e\bar{o}$, to go away; ex- $e\bar{o}$, to go out; $pr\bar{o}d$ - $e\bar{o}$, to go forth; con- $voc\bar{o}$, to call together; $d\bar{e}$ - $cid\bar{o}$, to fall off; prae- $d\bar{o}e\bar{o}$, to foretell; re- $d\bar{u}e\bar{o}$, to lead back; re- $fic\bar{i}\bar{o}$, to repair, to make anew.³

1. Faciō and fīō may also unite with verbal stems in e:

Cale-faciō, to make warm; cale-fāō, to be made warm, become warm; lābe-faciō, to cause to totter; pate-faciō, to open, cause to be open.

2. Verbs are often united with other words in writing without strictly forming compounds:

Manū mitto or manū-mitto, to emancipate, let go from the hand; satis facio or satis-facio, to satisfy, do enough for; animum ad-verto or anim-adverto, to notice, turn the mind to.

3. Verbs in $fc\bar{o}$ and $facc\bar{o}$, like the following, are best explained not as compounds but as denominatives: ⁴

Aedi-ficō, to build, from aedifex; ampli-ficō,4 to enlarge; cale-factō, to make warm, from cale-factus.

- 4. Verbs compounded with prepositions often undergo certain vowel-changes:
- 1) Short a and e generally become i: $habe\~{o}$, ad- $hibe\~{o}$; $tene\~{o}$, con- $tine\~{o}$. But a sometimes becomes e or u: $carp\~{o}$, $d\~{e}$ - $cerp\~{o}$; $calc\~{o}$, con- $culc\~{o}$.
 - 2) Ae becomes 7: caedo, in-cido.
 - 3) Au generally becomes ô or ū: plaudō, ex-plōdō; claudō, in-clūdō.
- 5. FORM AND MEANING OF PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.—The following facts are added for reference:

A, **ab**, **abs**.—1. Form: \bar{a} before m and v, and sometimes before f; abs before c, q, t, and, with the loss of b, also before p^s ; au in au-fer \bar{o} and au-fugi \bar{o} ; ab before the other consonants, and before vowels.—2. Meaning: (1) 'away,' 'off': \bar{a} -mitt \bar{o} , to send away; abs-cond \bar{o} , to hide away; as-port \bar{o} ,

Observe the force of the compound. Aenus pês means a brazen foot, but aeni-pês means having brazen feet; see also 340, III., note.

² The words thus formed are strictly compounds of verbs with adverbs, as the original type of these compounds was formed before the adverb became a preposition.

³ Observe in these examples the strict adverbial use of the particles $a\bar{b}$, ex, etc., away, out, etc. Prepositions, on the other hand, always denote relations, and are auxiliary to the case-endings; see 307, foot-note.

⁴ In some of these the primitive is not found in actual use.

⁶ As abs-pello, as-pello, to drive away.

to carry off; au- $fugi\bar{o}$, to flee away; ab-sum, to be away; ab- $e\bar{o}$, to go away; ab- $jici\bar{o}$ or ab- $ici\bar{o}$, to throw away; (2) in adjectives, generally negative: \bar{a} - $m\bar{e}ns$, without mind, frantic; ab-similis, unlike.

Ad.—1. Form: ad before vowels, and before b, d, f, h, j, m, n, q, and v, sometimes before g, l, r, and s, rarely before p and t; d assimilated before c, generally before p and t, and sometimes before g, l, q, r, and s; generally dropped before gn, sc, sp, and st.2—2. Meaning: 'to,' 'toward,' 'to one's self'; 'on,' 'at,' 'near,' 'by'; 'besides': $ad-d\bar{u}c\bar{v}$, to lead to; $ac-cid\bar{o}$, to fall to, happen; $ad-move\bar{o}$, to move toward; $ac-cipi\bar{o}$, to receive, take to one's self; $ac-cing\bar{o}$, to gird on; $ad-l\bar{u}tr\bar{o}$ or $al-l\bar{u}tr\bar{o}$, to bark at; ad-sum, to be present or near; $ad-st\bar{o}$ or $a-st\bar{o}$, to stand near, to stand by; $ad-disc\bar{o}$, to learn besides.

Ante.—1. Form: unchanged except in anti-cipō, 'to take beforehand,' and in composition with stō: ante-stō or anti-stō, to stand before.—2. Meaning: 'before,' 'beforehand': ante-currō, to run before; ante-habeō, to prefer—htt., to have or hold before.

Circum.—1. Form: generally unchanged, but m is sometimes dropped in compounds of $e\bar{o}$, to go: $circum-e\bar{o}$ or $circu-e\bar{o}$, to go around.—2. Meaning: 'around,' 'about': $circum-mitt\bar{o}$, to send around.

Com.3—1. Form: com before b, m, p; co before vowels,4 h, and gn,5 con or col before l; cor before r; con before the other consonants.—2. Meanine: (1) 'together,' 'with,' in various senses: com-bibō, to drink together; com-mittō, to let go together; co-eō, to go together; col-loquor, to talk with; cōn-fligō, to contend with; (2) 'completely,' 'thoroughly': cōn-sūmō, to consume, take wholly; con-dēnsus, very dense.

E, ex.—1. FORM: ex before vowels and before c, h, p, q, q, s, 7t, and with assimilation before f; 8 ē before the other consonants. —2. Meaning: (1) 'out,' 'forth,' 'without,' implying 'freedom from': ex-eō, to go out, go forth; ex-cidō, to fall out; ē-dō, to put forth; ex-sanguis, without blood, bloodless; ex-onerō, to unload, disburden; (2) 'thoroughly,' 'completely,' 'successfully': ex-ūrō, to burn up; ē-discō, to learn by heart; ef-ficiō, to effect, do successfully; ē-dūrus, very hard.

In.—1. Form: n sometimes assimilated before l, often before m^{10} and r;

- 1 See foot-note 1, p. 20.
- ² Sometimes retained: ad-gnôscō or ā-gnôscō; ad-stō or a-stō.
- 3 An earlier form for cum.

- ⁵ Cō also appears in cō-nectō, cō-nīveō, cō-nītor, and cō-nūbium.
- 6 But ē-pōtō and ē-pōtus; ex-scendō or ē-scendō.
- ⁷ S is sometimes dropped after x: exspectō or ex-pectō.
- 8 C before f is not recommended; ef-fero is better than ec fero.
- 9 But ex-lead

⁴ A contraction often takes place: $co-ag\bar{v}$, $c\bar{v}-g\bar{v}$. Com is sometimes retained before e or i, and co or con is used before $i=ji: com-ed\bar{v}$, com-itor, $co-ici\bar{v}$ or $con-ici\bar{v}=con-ici\bar{v}$ or $con-jici\bar{v}$; see foot-note 1, p. 20.

 $^{^{10}}$ Im is the approved form before $b,\,p,$ and m, especially in $im\text{-}per\bar{a}tor,\,im\text{-}per\bar{o},$ and im-perium.

often changed to m before b and p; in other situations unchanged.—2. Meaning: 'in;' 'into,' 'on,' 'at,' 'against': $in\text{-}col\bar{o}$, to dwell in; $in\text{-}e\bar{o}$, to go into; $im\text{-}migr\bar{o}$, to move into; $in\text{-}n\bar{i}tor$, to lean on; in-tueor, to look at; $ir\text{-}r\bar{i}de\bar{o}$, to laugh at; $im\text{-}p\bar{u}qn\bar{o}$, to fight against.

Inter.—1. Form: unchanged, except in *intel-lego*, to understand.—2. Meaning: 'between,' sometimes involving *interruption*, 'together': *intervenio*, to come between, intervene; *inter-dico*, to forbid, interdict; *inter-necto*, to tie together.

Ob.—1. Form: b assimilated before c, f, g, and p; dropped in o-mitt; to omit, and in operio, to cover; in other situations generally unchanged.²—2. Meaning: (1) 'before,' 'in the way,' 'toward,' 'against,' especially of an obstruction or opposition: of-fero, to bring before; ob-sto, to stand in the way; oc-curro, to run toward, run to meet; op-pūgnō, to attack, fight against; (2) 'down,' 'completely': oc-cīdō, to cut down, kill; op-primō, to press down, to overwhelm.

Per.—1. Form: generally unchanged, but r is sometimes assimilated before l, and is dropped before j in compounds of $j\bar{u}r\bar{v}$, as $p\bar{e}$ - $j r\bar{v}$, to swear falsely.—2. Meaning: 'through,' 'thoroughly,' sometimes in a bad sense with the idea of breaking through, disregarding: per-lego, to read through; per-disco, to learn thoroughly; per-fidus, perfidious, breaking faith.

Fost.—1. Form: unchanged, except in $p\bar{o}$ -mērium, the open space on either side of the city-wall, and pos-merīdiānus, of the afternoon.—2. Meaning: 'after,' behind': post-habēō, to place after, have after, esteem less.

Prō, **prōd**.—1. Form: $pr\bar{o}$ is the usual form, both before vowels and before consonants; $pr\bar{o}d$, the original form, is retained in a few words before vowels.6—2. Meaning: 'forth,' 'forward,' 'before,' 'for': $pr\bar{o}d$ - $e\bar{o}$, to go forth or forward; $pr\bar{o}$ - $c\bar{o}$, to run forward; $pr\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{u}gn\bar{o}$, to fight in front of, fight for; pro- $hibe\bar{o}$, to hold aloof, i. e., out of one's reach, hence to prohibit; $pr\bar{o}$ - $mitt\bar{o}$, to send forth, to hold out as a promise, to promise.

Sub.—1. Form: b assimilated before c, f, q, and p, and often before m and r; dropped before sp; in other situations unchanged. The form subs, shortened to sus, occurs in a few words: sus-cipiō, sus-pendō.—2. Meaning: 'under,' 'down,' 'from under,' 'up'; 'in place of,' 'secretly'; 'somewhat,' 'slightly': sub-eō, to go under; sub-lābor, to slip down; sub-dūcō, to draw from under, withdraw; sus-cipiō, to undertake; sus-citō, to lift up, arouse;

¹ It is used in several compounds referring to death: inter-eo, to die; inter-ficio, to kill.

² Obs seems to occur in a few words: obs-olesco, os-tendo for obs-tendo (b dropped), though these words are sometimes otherwise explained; thus ob-solesco, as a compound of solesco from soleo.

³ As per-legō, pel-legō; per-liciō, pel-liciō; but per is preferable.

⁴ For per-jūro.

⁵ Post-merīdiānus is also used; pō-merīdiānus is not approved, though it occurs.

⁶ As in prēd-eō, prōd-igō, prōd-igus, and before e in the compound of sum: prōd-est, etc.

⁷ Mostly in adjectives: sub-absurdus, somewhat absurd; sub-dolus, somewhat craftv sub-impudėns, somewhat impudent; sub-impudėns, somewhat odious

sub-stituō, to put in place of, to substitute; sub-ripiō, to take away secretly; sub-rīdeō, to smile, laugh slightly; sub-difficilis, somewhat difficult.

Trāns.—1. Form: it generally drops s before s, and it often drops ns before d, j, l, m, n; it is otherwise unchanged.—2. Meaning: 'across,' 'through,' 'completely': $tr\bar{a}ns$ - $curr\bar{o}$, to run across; $tr\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, to lead across; $tr\bar{a}ns$ - $ili\bar{o}$, to leap across; $tr\bar{a}ns$ - $ig\bar{o}$, to transact; to finish, do completely or thoroughly—lit., to drive through.

3. Form and Meaning of the Inseparable Prepositions.—The follow ing facts are added for reference:

Ambi, amb.²—1. Form: amb before vowels; ambi, am, or an,⁹ before consonants.—2. Meaning: 'around,' 'on both sides,' 'in two directions': amb-iō,⁴ to go round; amb-igō, to act in two ways, move in different directions, to hesitate; am-putō, to cut around or off; an-quirō, to search round.

Dis, $d\bar{\imath}$.—1. Form: dis before, p, q, t, before s followed by a vowel, and, with assimilation, before f; but dir for dis before a vowel or h; $d\bar{\imath}$ in most other situations; but both dis and $d\bar{\imath}$ occur before j.5—2. Meaning: 'apart,' 'asunder,' s 'between,' sometimes negative r and sometimes intensive: $distine\bar{\imath}$, to hold apart; $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}c\bar{\imath}$, to lead apart, divide; dif- $fugi\bar{\imath}$, to flee asunder, or in different directions; dir- $im\bar{\imath}$, to take in pieces, destroy; dis- $senti\bar{\imath}$, to think differently, dissent; $d\bar{\imath}$ - $j\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}dic\bar{\imath}$, to judge between; dis- $plice\bar{\imath}$, to displease, not to please; dif-ficilis, difficult, not easy; $d\bar{\imath}$ - $laud\bar{\imath}$, to praise highly.

In.—1. Form: n dropped before gn; otherwise like the preposition in.—2. Meaning: 'not,' 'un': i-gnōscō, not to know, not to recollect, to pardon; im-memor, unmindful; in-imīcus, unfriendly.

Por, for **port**.8—1. Form: r assimilated before l and s; in other situations, por.—2. Meaning: 'forth,' 'forward,' 'near': pol-liceor, to hold forth, offer, promise; pos-sideō, to possess; por-rigō, to hold out or forth, to offer.

Red, re.-1. Form: red before vowels, before h, and in $red-d\bar{o}$; re in other situations.—2. Meaning: 'back,' 'again,' 'in return': 'p $red-e\bar{o}$, to go back; $re-fici\bar{o}$, to repair, make again; $red-am\bar{o}$, to love in return.

Sēd, 11 sē.—1. Form: sēd before vowels; sē before consonants.—2. Meaning: 'apart,' 'aside': sē-cēdō, to go apart, secede; sē-pōnō, to put aside or apart.

Note.—For the Composition of Adverbs, see 304, I., 2; 304, II., 1, note; 304, IV., note 2.

- ¹ Or before i = j or ji; see foot-note 1, p. 20.
- ² Compare ambŏ, both, and ἀμφί, around, on both sides.
- ³ An before c, q, f, and t.
- 4 For amb-eō.
- 5 Dis-jungo, dī-jūdicō.
- 6 Both literally 'apart' in respect to place or position, and figuratively 'apart' in sentiment or opinion.
 - ⁷ Especially in adjectives: dis-par, unequal; dis-similis, unlike.
 - ⁸ Greek πορτί, προτί, πρός, to, toward, see Curtius, 381.
 - 9 To sit near and so to control.
 - 10 Sometimes negative, not, un-: re-sīgnō, to unseal; re-clādō, to open.
 - 11 Probably an old ablative of suī and identical with sed, but,

PART THIRD. S Y N T A X.

CHAPTER I.

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

1. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

- 345. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
- 346. A sentence is a combination of words expressing either a single thought or two or more thoughts.
 - 347. A SIMPLE SENTENCE expresses a single thought;

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic.

348. A Complex Sentence expresses one leading thought with one or more dependent thoughts:

Dônec eris felix, multôs numerabis amicôs, so long as you shall be prosperous, you will number many friends. Ovid.

NOTE 1.—In this example two simple sentences—(1) 'you will be prosperous,' and (2) 'you will number many friends'—are so united that the first only specifies the time of the second: You will number many friends (when?), so long as you shall be prosperous. The parts thus united are called Clauses or Members.

Note 2.—The part of the complex sentence which makes complete sense of itself—multös numerābis amīcōs—is called the Principal or Independent (lause; and the part which is dependent upon it—dōnec eris fēlīx—is called the Subordinate or Dependent Clause.

349. A COMPOUND SENTENCE expresses two or more independent thoughts:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting and the mountains are shaded. Verg.

350. A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE has the form of an assertion:

Miltiadēs accūsātus est, Miltiades was accused. Nep.

351. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question:

Quis loquitur, who speaks? Ter. Quis non paupertatem extimescit, who does not fear poverty? Cic. Quid ais, what do you say? Ter. Ec-

quid¹ animadvertis silentium, do you not notice the silence? Cic. Quālis est ōrātiŏ, what kind of an oration is it? Cic. Quot sunt, how many are there? Plaut. Ubĭ sunt, where are they? Cic. Ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we? Cic. Vīsne fortūnam experīrī meam, do you wish to try my fortune? Cic. Nonne nobilitārī volunt, do they not wish to be renowned? Cic. Num igitur peccāmus, are we then at fault? Cic.

1. Interrogative Words.—Interrogative sentences generally contain some interrogative word—either an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or one of the interrogative particles: 2 -ne, nonne, num; see examples above.

Note 1.—Questions with -ne ask for information: Scribitne, 'is he writing?' Ne is sometimes appended to utrum, num, or an, without affecting their meaning, and sometimes inserted in the clause after utrum:

Numne ferre arma debuerunt, ought they to have borne arms? Cic. Utrum taceamne, an praedicem, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

Note 2.—Questions with nonne expect the answer yes: Nonne scribit, 'is he not writing?'

Note 3.—Questions with *num* expect the answer *no: Num scribit*, 'is he writing?' Note 4.—For questions with *an*, see 353, note 4.

2. The particle -ne is always appended to some other word, generally to the emphatic word of the sentence, i. e., to the word upon which the question especially turns; appended to $n\bar{o}n$, it forms $n\bar{o}nne$:

Visne experiri, do you wish to try? Cic. Tune id veritus es, did vou fear this? Cic. Omnisne pecunia soluta est, has all the money been paid? Cic. Hōcinest (= hōcine est³) officium patris, is this the duty of a father? Ter. Unquamne vidisti. have you ever seen? Cic. Nōnne volunt, do they not wish? Cic.

3. Sometimes no interrogative word is used, especially in impassioned discourse:

Crēditis, do you believe? Verg. Ego non potero, shall I not be able? Cic.

4. An emphatic tandem, meaning indeed, pray, then, often occurs in interrogative sentences:

Quod genus tandem est istud glörine, what kind of glory is that, pray? Cic.

Note 1 .- Nam, appended to an interrogative, also adds emphasis:

Numnam haec audīvit, did he hear this, pray? Ter.

Note 2.—For Two Interrogatives in the same clause, and for an Interrogative with tantus, see 454, 3 and 4.

352. Answers.—Instead of replying to a question of fact with a simple particle meaning yes or no, the Latin usually repeats the verb or some emphatic word, often with $pr\bar{o}rsus$, $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, and the like, or if negative, with $n\bar{o}n$:

Dîxitne causam, did he state the cause? Dîxit, he stated it. Cic. Possumusne tûtî esse, can we be safe? Non possumus, we can not. Cic.

¹ Ecquid, though the neuter accusative of an interrogative pronoun, has become ir effect a mere particle with the force of nonne.

² See **311**, 8, foot-note.

³ See 27, note.

Note 1.—Sometimes the simple particle is used—affirmatively, \$\tilde{a}n^{\tilde{e}}\$, \$\tilde{e}iam\$, \$\tilde{e}ta\$, \$\tilde{e}r^{\tilde{e}}\$, etc.; negatively, \$n^{\tilde{e}n}\$, \$minim^{\tilde{e}}\$, etc.

Vênitne, has he come? Non, no. Plaut.

Note 2.—Sometimes, without an actual repetition of the emphatic word, some equivalent expression is used:

Tuam vestem dētraxit tibǐ, did he strip off your coat? Factum, he did-lit., done, for it was done. Ter.

353. Double or Disjunctive Questions offer a choice or alternative, and generally take one of the following forms:

1. The first clause has utrum or -ne, and the second an:

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, is that your fault or ours? Cic. Rômamne veniò an hic maneò, do I go to Rome, or do I remain here? Cic.

2. The first clause omits the particle, and the second has an, or anne:

Eloquar an sileam, shall I utter it, or keep silence? Verg. Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompējō, to Gabīnius, shall I say, or to Pompey? Cic.

Note 1.—Other forms are rare.1

Note 2.—Utrum sometimes stands before a disjunctive question with -ne in the first clause and an in the second:

Utrum, taceamue, an praedicem, which, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

Note 3.—When the second clause is negative, the particle generally unites with the negative, giving annon or necne:

Sunt haec tua verba necne, are these your words or not? Cic.

Note 4.—By the omission of the first clause, the second often stands alone with an, in the sense of or, implying a negative answer:

An hoc timemus, or do we fear this? Liv.

Note 5 .- Disjunctive questions sometimes have three or more members: 2

Gabīnio anne Pompēio an utrīque, to Gabinius, or Pompey, or both? Cic.

Note 6.—Disjunctive questions inquire which alternative is true. These must be distinguished—

1) From such single questions as inquire whether either alternative is true:

Solem dicam aut lunam deum, shall I call the sun or the moon a god? 3 Cic.

2) From two separate questions, introduced respectively by num, implying a negative answer, and by an, implying an affirmative answer:

Num furis? an lūdis mē? are you mad? or do you not rather mock me? Hor.

354. An Imperative Sentence has the form of a command, exhortation, or entreaty:

Jüstitiam cole, cultivate justice. Cic.

355. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation:

Relīquit quos viros, what men he has left! Cie.

¹ Thus, in Vergil, -ne occurs in both clauses, also -ne in the first with seu in the second. In Horace, -ne occurs in the second clause with no particle in the first.

² Cicero, in his oration $Pr\bar{o}$ $Dom\bar{o}$, xxii., 57, has a question of this kind extended to eight clauses, the first introduced by utrum and each of the others by an.

³ Observe that in this sense aut, not an, is used.

Note 1 .- Many sentences introduced by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs may be so spoken as to become exclamatory:

Quibus gaudiīs exsultābis, in what joys will you exult! Cic.

Note 2.—Some declarative and imperative sentences readily become exclamatory.

Note 3.—Exclamatory sentences are often elliptical.

II. ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

- 356. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST SIMPLE FORM consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied:
 - 1. The Subject, or that of which it speaks;
 - 2. The Predicate, or that which is said of the subject:

Cluilius moritur, Cluilius dies. Liv.

357. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST EXPANDED FORM consists only of these same parts with their various modifiers:

In his castris Cluilius, Albanus rex, moritur, Cluilius, the Alban king dies in this camp.2 Liv.

- 1. The subject and predicate of a sentence are called the Principal or Essential elements; their modifiers, the Subordinate elements.
- 2. The elements, whether principal or subordinate, may be either simple or complex:
 - 1) Simple, when not modified by other words; see 358.
 - 2) Complex, when thus modified; see 359.
- 358. The SIMPLE SUBJECT of a sentence must be a noun, a pronoun, or some word or words used as a noun: 3

Rex decrevit, the king decreed. Nep. Ego serībo, I write. Cic. Ibam, I was walking. Hor. Vīcimus, we have conquered. Cic. Video idem valet, the word video has the same meaning. Quint.

359. The Complex Subject consists of the simple subject with its modifiers:

Populus Romanus decrevit, the Roman people decreed. Cic. Cluilius rex moritur, Cluilius the King dies. Liv. Rex Rutulorum, the king of the RUTULI. Liv. Liber de officies, the book on duties. Cic.

Note 1 .- The subject is thus modified-

- 1) By an Adjective: Populus Romanus.
- 2) By a noun in apposition: Cluilius rex.
 - 3) By a genitive: Rex Rutulorum,
- 4) By a noun with a preposition: Liber de officias.

¹ Here Cluīlius is the subject, and moritur the predicate.

² Here Cluilius, Albanus rex, is the subject in its enlarged or modified form, and in his castris moritur is the predicate in its enlarged or modified form.

3 A pronominal subject is always contained or implied in the personal ending. Thus m in $\bar{\imath}ba$ -m is a pronominal stem = ego, and is the true original subject of the verb. See also 247; 368, 2, foot-note.

NOTE 2.—A noun or pronoun used to explain or identify another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is called an Appositive; as Cluilius rēx, 'Cluilius the king.'

Note 3.—Any noun may be modified like the subject.

Note 4 .- Sometimes adverbs occur as modifiers of nouns:

Non ignārī sumus ante malorum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg.

360. The SIMPLE PREDICATE must be either a verb, or the copula sum with a noun or adjective:

Miltiades est accūsātus, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Tū es testis, you are a witness. Cic. Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cic.

NOTE 1.—Like sum, several other verbs sometimes unite with a noun or an adjective to form the predicate; see 362, 2. A noun or an adjective thus used is called a *Predicate Noun* or *Predicate Adjective*.

Note 2.—Sum with an adverb sometimes forms the predicate:

Omnia rēctē sunt, all things are RIGHT. Cic.

361. The Complex Predicate consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers:

Miltiades Athènās līberāvit, Miltiades liberated Athens, Nep. Labörī student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Me rogāvit sententiam, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Pons iter hostilus dedit, the bridge furnished a passage to the enemy. Liv. Bella felīciter gessit, he waged wars occessfully. Cic. In his castrīs moritur, he dies (where?) in this camp. Liv. Vēre convēnēre, they assembled (when?) in the spring. Liv.

- 1. The Predicate, when a verb, is thus modified-
- 1) By an Accusative: Athenās līberāvit.
- 2) By a Dative: Laborī student.
- 3) By two Accusatives: Me rogāvit sententiam.
- 4) By an Accusative and a Dative: Her hostibus dedit.
- 5) By an Adverb: Feliciter gessit.
- 6) By an Adverbial Phrase: In his castris moritur.

NOTE 1.—Still other modifiers occur with special predicates; see 406, 409, 410, 422

NOTE 2.—No one predicate admits all the modifiers here given. Thus only *transitive* verbs admit an Accusative (371); only *intransitive* verbs, a Dative alone (384, I.); and only *special* verbs, two Accusatives (374).

2. A PREDICATE NOUN is modified like the subject:

Haee virtus omnium est regina virtutum, this virtue is the queen of all virtues. Cic. See also 359, notes 1 and 3.

- 3. A PREDICATE ADJECTIVE is modified-
- 1) By an Adverb: Satis hūmilis est, he is sufficiently humble. Liv.
- 2) By an Oblique Case: Avidī laudis fuērunt, they were desirous of praise. Cic. Omnī aetātī mors est commūnis, death is common to every age. Cic Dīgnī sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship. Cic.

NOTE.—Any adjective may be modified like the predicate adjective:

Eques Romanus satis litteratus, a Roman knight sufficiently literary. Cic.

CHAPTER II.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

RULE I.-Predicate Nouns.1

362. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case:

Brūtus cāstòs i libertātis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty. Liv. Servius rēx est dēclārātus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Orestem sē esse dīxit, he said that he was Orestes. Cic. See 360, note 1.

Note.—This rule applies also to nouns predicated of pronouns: 4

Ego sum nuntius, I am a messenger. Liv.

1. A Predicate Noun with different forms for different genders must agree in Gender as well as in Case;

Ūsus magister 5 est, experience is an instructor. Cic. Historia est magistra 5 (not magister), history is an instructress. Cic.

- 2. Predicate Nouns are most frequent with the following verbs:
- 1) With sum and a few intransitive verbs—ēvādō, exsistō, appāreō, and the like:

Homo magnus evaserat, he had become (turned out) a great man. Cic. Exstitit vindex libertatis, he became (stood forth) the defender of liberty. Cic. See also examples under the rule.

2) With Passive Verbs of appointing, making, naming, regarding, esteeming, and the like:

Servius rex est decliratus, Servius was declared King. Liv. Mundus civitās existimātur, the world is regarded as a state. Cic.

Note 1.—In the poets, Predicate Nouns are used with great freedom after verbs of a great variety of significations. Thus with audio = appellor:

Rêx audistî, you have been called king; i.e., have heard yourself so called. Hor. Ego divûm incêdo rêgîna, I walk as queen of the gods. Verg.

- ¹ For convenience of reference, the Rules will be presented in a body on page 324.
- ² For Predicate Genitive, see 401.
- ³ In these examples $c\bar{u}st\bar{t}s$, $r\bar{e}x$, and Crestem are all predicate nouns, and agree in case respectively with $Br\bar{u}tus$, Servius, and $\epsilon\bar{e}$ (536).
 - 4 As all substantive pronouns have the construction of nouns; see 182.
- Observe that in usus magister est, the masculine form, magister, is used to agree in gender with usus; while in historia est magistra, the feminine form, magistra, is used to agree in gender with historia.

Note 2.-For Predicate Accusative, see 373, 1.

Note 3.—The Dative of the object for which (390), pro with the Ablative, and loco or numero (or in numero) with the Genitive, are often kindred in force to Predicate Nouns: hosti, pro hoste, loco hostis, numero (or in numero) hostium, 'for an enemy,' or 'as an enemy':

Fuit omnibus bono, it was a benefit (lit., for a benefit) to all. Cic. Sicilia nobis prò acrariò fuit, Siciliy was a treasury (for a treasury) for us. Cic. Quaestori parentis locò fuit, he was a parent (lit., in the place of a parent) to the questor. Cic. Is thi parentis numerò fuit, he was a parent to you. Cic. See also Predicate Genitive, 401.

3. PREDICATE NOUNS are used not only with finite verbs, but also with INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES, and sometimes without verb or participle:

Dēclārātus rēx Numa, Numa having been declared king. Liv. Canîniō consule, Caninius being consul. Cic. See 431, also Orestem under the rule.

Note 1.—For a Predicate Nominative after the Infinitive esse, see 536, 2, 1).

Note 2.—For an Infinitive or a Clause instead of a Predicate Noun; see 539; 501.

RULE II.-Appositives.

363. An Appositive agrees in Case with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies:

Cluīlius rēx moritur, Cluilius the King dies. Liv. Urbēs Karthāgō atque Numantia, the cities Carthage and Numantia. Cic. Saguntum, foederātam cīvitātem, expūgnāvit, he took Saguntum, an allied town. Liv. See 359, note 2.

1. An Appositive with different forms for different genders must agree in Gender as well as in Case:

Cluīlius $r\bar{e}x$, Cluīlius the king. Liv. Venus $r\bar{e}g\bar{\imath}na$, Venus the queen. Hor.

2. An Appositive often agrees with the pronoun implied in the ending of the verb:

Hostis 2 hostem occidere volui, I, an enemy, wished to slay an enemy. Liv.

- 3. Appositives are kindred in force—
- 1) Generally to Relative clauses:
- Cluīlius rēx, Cluilius (who was) THE KING. Liv.

2) Sometimes to other Subordinate clauses, 3 as Temporal, Concessive, etc.: Fürius puer didicit, Furius learned when he was a boy or as a boy. Cic. Jünius aedem dictător dedicăvit, Junius dedicated the temple when dictator. Liv.

4. By Synesis 4—a Construction according to Sense:

See 362, 1, foot-note.

² Hostis agrees with ego, implied in voluî, 'I wished'; see 358, foot-note.

⁸ This construction is sometimes called Adverbial Apposition.

⁴ See Figures of Speech, 636, IV., 4.

1) Possessives admit a Genitive in apposition with the Genitive of the pronoun implied in them:

Tua ipsīus 1 amīcitia, your own friendship. Cic. Meum sõlius peccātum, my fault alone. Cic. Nõmen meum absentis, my name in my absence. Cic.

2) Locatives admit as an Appositive a Locative Ablative (411, 425), with or without a preposition:

Albae constiterunt in urbe opportună, 2 they halted at Alba, a convenient city. Cie. Corinthi, Achaiae urbe, at Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac.

5. CLAUSES.—A noun or pronoun may be in apposition with a clause, or a clause in apposition with a noun or pronoun:

Nos, id a quod debet, patria delectat, our country delights us, as it ought. Cic. Omnes interfice jussit, munimentum and praesens, he ordered them all to be put to death, a means of protection for the present. Tac. For clauses in apposition with nouns or pronouns, see 499, 3; 501, III.

364. Partitive Apposition.—The parts may be in apposition with the whole, or the whole in apposition with the parts:

Duo reges, ille bello, hie pace, civitatem auxerunt, two kings advanced the state, the former by war, the latter by peace. Liv. Ptolemaeus et Cleopatra, reges 4 Aegypti, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, rulers of Egypt. Liv.

SECTION II.

GENERAL VIEW OF CASES.

365. Cases, in accordance with their general force, may be arranged and characterized as follows:

I. Nominative,
II. Vocative,
Case of the Subject.
Case of Address.
III. Accusative,
Case of Direct Object.
IV. Dative,
Case of Indirect Object.
V. Genitive,
Case of Adjective Relations.
VI. Ablative,
Case of Adverbial Relations.

² As a *Locative Ablative* is a genuine *Locative* in sense, there is no special irregularity here, and *in urbe opport* $\bar{u}n\bar{u}$ may be explained as a separate modifier of the verb: 'They halted at *Alba*, at a convenient city.' Thus explained, it is not an appositive at all.

4 In the first example, i'le and hie, the parts, are in apposition with reges, the whole; but in the second example, reges, the whole, is in apposition with the parts, Ptolemaeus and Cleopatra.

¹ Ipsĭus agrees with tuī (of you) involved in tua; sölĭus and absentis, with meī involved in meum. The Genitive of ipse, sölus, ūnus, and omnis is often thus used.

³ Id quod debet, lit., that which it owes. Id and minimentum are in apposition respectively with nos delectat and omnes interfici, and are best explained as Accusatives. A Nominative apparently in apposition with a clause is generally best explained either as an appositive to some Nominative, or as the subject of a separate clause.

⁵ This arrangement is adopted in the discussion of the cases, because, it is thought, it will best present the force of the several cases and their relation to each other.

366. The Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Vocative have probably retained with very slight modifications their original force as developed in the mother tongue from which the Latin was derived.

367. The Ablative combines within itself the separate offices of three cases which were originally distinct:²

- 1. The Ablative proper, denoting the relation from—the place from which.
- 2. The Locative, denoting the relation IN, AT—the place IN Or AT which.
- 3. The *Instrumental*, denoting the relation with, by—the instrument or means with or by which.

SECTION III.

NOMINATIVE.-VOCATIVE.

I. NOMINATIVE.

RULE III.-Subject Nominative.

368. The subject of a finite verb is put in the Nominative:

Servius rēgnāvit, Servius reigned. Liv. Patent portae, the gates are open. Cic. Rēx vīcit, the king conquered. Liv. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, vēs tyrannēs intrēdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

- The subject is always a substantive, a pronoun, or some word or clause used substantively;⁴ see examples under the rule.
- 2. A pronominal subject is always expressed or implied in the ending of the verb:⁵

¹ That is, in the primitive Indo-European tongue, from which have been derived, either directly or indirectly, not only the Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, but also the English, French, German, and indeed nearly all the languages of modern Europe. Upon the general subject of Cases, their original formation and meaning, see Bopp. I., pp. 242-5 9; Merguet, pp. 17-117; Penka, Hübschmann, Holzweissig, Delbrück, and, among the earlier writers, Hartung, 'Ueber die Casus,' etc., and Rumpel, 'Casuslehre.'

² See Delbrück, 'Ablativ, Localis, Instrumentalis.'

³ For the Subject of the Infinitive, see **536**. For the Agreement of the verb with its subject, see **460**.

⁴ For clauses used substantively, see 540.

⁵ See 247. Thus moneo means I (not you, he, or we, but I) instruct. Indeed, every verb contains a pronominal subject in itself, and in general it is necessary to add a separate subject only when it would otherwise be doubtful to whom the implied pronoun refers. Thus regnatit, 'he reigned,' is complete of itself, if the context shows to

Discipulos moneō¹ ut studia ament, I instruct pupils to love (that they may love) their studies. Quint. Non scholae, sed vītae discimus, we learn not for the school, but for life. Sen.

Note.—A separate pronominal subject may, however, be added for the sake of clearness, emphasis, or contrast, as in the fourth example under the rule.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially if it is est or sunt:

Ecce tuae litterae, lo your letter (comes). Cic. Tot sententiae, there are sunt) so many opinions. Ter. Consul profectus (est), the consul set out. Liv.

Note 1.—The verb facio is often omitted in short sentences and clauses:

Melius hī, quam vös, these have done better than you. Cic. Rēctē ille, he does rightly. Cic. Cotta finem, Cotta closed, lit., made an end. Cic. So also in Livy after nihil aliud (amplius, minus, etc.) quam, 'nothing other (more, less, etc.) than's 'merely'; nihil praeterquam, 'nothing except's 'merely': Nihil aliud quam stetërunt, they merely stood (did nothing other than). Liv.

Note 2.—Certain forms of expression often dispense with the verb:

Quid, what? quid enim, what indeed? quid ergō, what then? quid quod, what of the fact that? quid plūra, why more, or why shall I say more? nē plūra, not to say more; nē multa, not to say much; quid hōc ad mē, what is this to me? nihil ad rem, nothing to the subject.

NOTE 3 .- For the Predicate Nominative, see 362.

Note 4.—For the Nominative as an Appositive, see 363.

Note 5.—For the Nominative in Exclamations, see 381, note 3.

II. VOCATIVE.

RULE IV .- Case of Address.

369. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Perge, Laelī, proceed, Laelius. Cic: Quid est, Catilīna, why is it, Catiline? Cic. Tuum est, Servī, rēgnum, the kingdom is yours, Servius. Liv. O diī immortālēs, O immortal gods. Cic.

- 1. An Interjection may or may not accompany the Vocative.
- 2. In poetry, and sometimes in prose, the Nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the Vocative:

Audī tā, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban People. Liv.

3. Conversely, the Vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the Nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab ōris exspectāte venīs, from what shores, Hector, do you anxiously awaited come? Verg. Macte novā virtūte, puer, a blessing on your new valor, boy (lit., be enlarged by; supply esto). Verg.

whom the pronoun he refers; if not, the noun must be added: Servius rēgnāvit, lit., he, Servius, reigned, or Servius, he reigned. In the fourth example under the rule, ego and võs, though already implied in the form of the verb, are expressed for emphasis. In impersonal verbs the subject 'it,' in English, is implied in the personal ending t.

1 See preceding foot-note.

SECTION IV.

ACCUSATIVE.

370. The Accusative is used 1-

I. As the Direct Object of an Action;

II. In an Adverbial Sense—with or without Prepositions;

III. In Exclamations—with or without Interjections.

Note 1.—For the Predicate Accusative, see 362 and 373, 1.

Note 2.—For the Accusative in Apposition, see 363.

Note 3.—For the Accusative with Prepositions, see 433.

Note 4.—For the Accusative as the Subject of an Infinitive, see 536.

I. Accusative as Direct Object.

RULE V.—Direct Object.

371. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the World. Cic. Līberā rem pūblicam, free the republic. Cic. Populī Rōmānī salūtem dēfendite, defend the safety of the Roman people. Cic.

I. The DIRECT OBJECT may be-

1. An External Object, the person or thing on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as salūtem above.

2. An Internal Object; i. e., one already contained or implied in the action itself. This embraces two varieties:

1) In a STRICT SENSE, the Cognate Accusative, an object having a meaning cognate or kindred to that of the verb:

Servitūtem servīre,2 to serve in bondage (lit., to serve a servitude). Ter.

2) In a freer sense, the Accusative of Effect, the object produced by the action:

Librum scribere, to write a Book. Cic.

Note.—Participles in dus, verbal adjectives in bundus, and in Plautus a few verbal nouns, occur with the accusative:

Vītābundus castra, avoiding the camp. Liv. Quid tibš hanc cūrātiost (cūrātiost) rem = cūr hanc rem cūrās, what care have you of this? Plaut.

¹ The Accusative is probably the oldest of all the oblique cases known to our family of languages, and was therefore originally the sole modifier of the verb, expressing in a vague and general way several relations now recognized as distinct. This theory accounts for the great variety of constructions in which the Accusative is used in Latin. See Curtius, 'Zur Chronologie,' pp. 71-74; Holzweissig, pp. 34-38.

² The pupil will observe that the idea of servitūtem, 'servitude,' 'service,' is contained in the verb servire, 'to serve,' 'to be a slave or servant.'

³ See 27, note.

II. The COGNATE ACCUSATIVE is generally—(1) a noun with an adjective or other modifier, or (2) a neuter pronoun or adjective. It is used quite freely both with *transitive* and with *intransitive* verbs, and sometimes even with verbs in the *passive* voice:

Eam vitam vivere, to live that LIFE. Cic. Mirum somniare somnium, to dream a wonderful dream. Plant. Eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes. Cic. Hoe studet unum, he studies this one thing (this one study). Hor. Perfidum ridens Venus, Venus smiling a perfidious smile. Hor. Id assentior, I assent to this (I give this assent). Cic. Idem gloriari, to make the same boast. Cic. Quid possunt, how powerful are they, or what power have they? Caes. Ea monemur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. Nihil moti sunt, they were not at all moved. Liv.

Note.—Here may be mentioned the following kindred constructions:

Vòx hominem sonat, the voice sounds human. Verg. Saltare Cyclopa, to dance the Cyclops. Hor. Longam viam îre, to go a long way. Verg. Bellum pagnare, to fight a battle. Verg.

III. Special Veres.—Many verbs of Feeling or Emotion, of Taste and Smell, admit the Accusative:

Honores desperat, he despairs of honors. Cic. Haec gemebant, they were sighing over these things. Cic. Detrimenta ridet, he laughs at losses. Hor. Olet unguenta, he has the odor of perfumes. Ter. Öratió redolet antiquitatem, the oration smacks of antiquity. Cic.

Note 1.—Such verbs are: $d\tilde{e}sp\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$, to despair of; $dole\tilde{o}$, to grieve for; $gem\tilde{o}$, to sigh over; $horre\tilde{o}$, to shudder at; $laerim\tilde{o}$, to weep over; $maere\tilde{o}$, to mourn over; $m\tilde{v}ror$, to wonder at; $r\tilde{v}de\tilde{v}$, to laugh at; $sit\tilde{o}$, to thirst for, etc.; $ole\tilde{o}$, to have the odor of; $sap\tilde{v}\tilde{o}$, to savor of, whether used literally or figuratively.³

NOTE 2.—Many verbs in Latin, as in English, are sometimes transitive and sometimes intransitive; see augeo, dūrō, incipio, laxō, ruō, suppeditō, turbō, etc., in the Dictionary.

Note 8.—Many verbs which are usually rendered by *transitive* verbs in English are *intransitive* in Latin, and thus admit only an *indirect* object or some special construction; see 385.

Note 4.—The object of a transitive verb is often omitted, when it can be easily supplied: $move\bar{o} = move\bar{o} \ m\bar{e}$, 'I move (myself)'; $vertit = vertit \ s\bar{e}$, 'he turns (himself)';

Castrīs non movit, he did not more from his camp. Liv. Jam verterat fortūna. fortune had already changed. Liv.

Note 5 .- For the Passive Construction, see 464.

IV. An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as Direct Object:

Imperāre cupiunt, they desire to rule. Just. Opto ut id audiātis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic.

¹ Peccat, 'he makes a mistake'; idem peccat, 'he makes the same mistake,' where idem represents idem peccātum.

² Literally, we are admonished these things, i. e., these admonitions.

³ Observe that with the Accusative $d\bar{e}sp\bar{e}r\bar{o}$ means not 'to despair,' but 'to despair of.' and is accordingly transitive; $dole\bar{o}$, not 'to grieve,' but 'to grieve for,' etc. With some of the verbs here given the object is properly a $Cognate\ Accusative$.

372. Many Compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially compounds of verbs of motion with *circum*, *per*, *praeter*, *trāns*, and *super*, take the Accusative:

Murmur contionem perväsit, a murmur went through the assembly. Liv. Rhènum transièrunt, they crossed (went across) the Rhine. Caes. Circumstant senātum, they stand around the senate. Cic. Herèditātem obire, to enter upon the inheritance. Cic. Eas nātionès adīre, to go to those nations. Caes. Undam innātāre, to float upon the wave. Verg. Tela exire, to avoid the weapons. Verg. Gallös praccēdunt, they surpass the Gauls. Caes.

RULE VI.-Two Accusatives-Same Person.

373. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing:

Hamilcarem imperātōrcm fēcērunt, they made Hamilcar Commander. Nep. Ancum rēgem populus creāvit, the people elected Ancus King. Liv. Summum cōnsilium appellārunt Scnātum, they called their highest council Senate. Cic. Sē praestitit prōpūgnātōrem lībertātis, he showed himself the Champion of liberty. Cic. Flaccum habuit collēgam, he had Flaccus as colleague. Nep. Sōcratēs tōtīus mundī sē cīvem arbitrābātur, Socrates considered himself a citizen of the whole world. Cic.

1. Predicate Accusative.—One of the two Accusatives is the *Direct Object*, and the other an essential part of the Predicate. The latter may be called a *Predicate Accusative*; see 362.

Note 1.—Habeō, 'to have,' admits two Accusatives, but when it means 'to regard,' it usually takes, instead of the Predicate Accusative, the Dative of the object for which (384), the Ablative with in or prê, or the Genitive with loce, numerō or in numerō: liadibriō habēre, 'to regard as an object of ridicule'; prō hoste habēre, hostibus habēre, locō hostium habēre, numerō or 'in numerō hostium habēre, 'to regard as an enemy.' These constructions also occur with other verbs meaning to regard:

Ea honori habent, they regard these things as an honor. Sall. Illium pro hoste habers, to regard him as an enemy. Cass. Jam pro facto habers, to regard it as already done. Cic. In hostium numero habuit, he regarded them as enemies (lit., in the number of, etc.). Cass. Me pro déridiculo putat, he regards me as an object of endicule. Ter.

Note 2.—The Predicate Accusative is sometimes an adjective:

Homines caecès reddit avaritia, avarice renders men blind. Cic. Templa deorum sancta habebat, he regarded the temples of the gods as sacred. Nep.

2. In the Passive these verbs take two Nominatives—a Subject and a Predicate—corresponding to the two Accusatives of the Active:

Servius rew est declaratus, Servius was declared King. Liv. See also 362, 2.

Observe that an intransitive verb may become transitive by being compounded with a preposition which does not take the Accusative.

RULE VII.-Two Accusatives-Person and Thing.

374. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing, admit two Accusatives—one of the *person* and the other of the *thing*:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Philosophia nos rēs omnēs docuit, philosophy has taught us all things. Cic. Auxilia rēgem orābant, they asked auxiliaries from the king. Liv. Pācem tē poscimus, we demand peace of you. Verg. Non tē cēlāvī sermonem, I did not conceal from you the conversation. Cic.

1. In the Passive the Person becomes the subject, and the Accusative of the thing is retained:

Mê sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Ego sententiam rogātus sum, I was asked my opinion. Cic. Artès êdoctus fuerat, he had been taught the arts. Liv.

2. Two Accusatives are generally used with celo, doceo, edoceo; often with rogō, poscō, reposcō; sometimes with dedoceo, exposco, flagito, ōrō, etc., consulo, interrogō, percontor; rarely with moneo, admoneo, and postulo.

Note 1.— $C\bar{e}l\bar{b}$, 'to conceal,' takes—(1) in the Active generally two Accusatives, as under the rule, but sometimes the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with $d\hat{e}$; (2) in the Passive, the Accusative of a neuter pronoun or the Ablative with $d\hat{e}$:

Më dë höc librö cëlavit, he kept me ignorant of this book. Cic. Id cëlari, to be kept ignorant of this. Nep. Cëlari dë cönsiliö, to be kept ignorant of the plan. Cic.

Note 2.—Doce5 and $\bar{\epsilon}doce5$ generally follow the rule, 1 but sometimes they take the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with or without $d\bar{\epsilon}$, 2 and sometimes the Accusative 3 of the person with the Infinitive or a Subjunctive Clause:

Dè suñ re me docet, he informs me in regard to his case. Cic. Litteris Graecis doctus, instructed in Greek literature. Sall. Socratem fidibus docuit, he taught Socrates (with) the lyre. Cic. To sapere docet, he tauches you to be wise. Cic.

Note 3.—Most verbs of asking and demanding sometimes take two Accusatives, but verbs of asking, questioning, generally take the Accusative of the person⁴ and the Ablative of the thing ⁴ with de, and verbs of imploring, demanding, generally the Accusative of the thing ⁴ and the Ablative of the person⁴ with d or ab:

Tê his dê rêbus interrogō, I ask you in regard to these things. Cic. Vîctôriam ab dis exposeere, to implore victory from the gods. Caes. Id ab eô flagitare, to demand this from him. Caes.

¹ Other verbs of teaching— $\tilde{e}rudi\delta$, $\tilde{e}nstitu\delta$, $\tilde{e}nf\tilde{e}rm\delta$, $\tilde{e}nstru\delta$, etc.—generally take the Ablative of the thing with or without a preposition, as $\tilde{e}n$ or $d\tilde{e}$; see Dictionary.

² Doceo, in the sense of inform, takes de with the Ablative.

³ The Accusative may be omitted. With fidibus supply canere.

⁴ The Accusative or Ablative of the person is often omitted, and a clause often takes the place of the Accusative or Ablative of the thing. For examples and for special constructions, see, in the Dictionary, cēnsulē, interrogē, rogē; also flagitē, ērē, poscē, exposcē, and reposcē.

Note 4.—Petō and postulō generally take the Accusative of the thing 1 and the Ablative of the person with \bar{a} or ab; quaerō, the Accusative of the thing 1 and the Ablative of the person with \bar{e} or ex, \bar{a} , ab, or $d\bar{e}$:

Pacem ab Rimanis petiërunt, they asked peace from the Romans. Caes. Aliquid ab amicis postulare, to demand something from friends. Cic. Quaerit ex sölö ea, etc., he asks of him in private (from him alone) those questions, etc. Caes.

375. A NEUTER PRONOUN OF ADJECTIVE as a Cognate ² Accusative occurs in connection with a Direct Object with many verbs which do not otherwise take two Accusatives:

Hôc tế hortor, I exhort you to this, I give you this exhortation. Cic. Eas monemur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. So with velle, Caes., B. G. I., 34.

376. A few Compounds of trans, circum, and ad admit two Accusatives, dependent the one upon the verb, the other upon the preposition:

Ibèrum còpias trajècit, he led his forces across the Ebro. Liv. Animum adverti columellam, I noticed (turned my mind to) A SMALL COLUMN. Cic.

Note.—In the Passive these compounds and some others admit an Accusative depending upon the preposition:

Praetervehor distia Pantagiae, I am carried by the mouth of the Pantagias. Verg. Locum sum praetervectus, I have been carried by the place. Cic.

377. In POETRY, rarely in prose, verbs of clothing, unclothing—induō, exuō, cingō, accingō, indūcō, etc.—are sometimes used reflexively in the Passive, like the Greek Middle, and thus admit an Accusative:

Galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet. Verg. Inutile ferrum cingitur, he girds on his useless sword. Verg. Virgines longam indutae vestem, maidens attired in long robes, Liv.

Note.—A few other verbs sometimes admit a similar construction in the poets:

Antiquum saturāta dolorem, having satisfied her o'd resentment. Verg. Suspēnsi loculēs lacerto, with satchels hung upon the arm (having hung, etc.). Hor. Pāscuntur silvās, they browse on the forests. Verg.

II. Accusative in an Adverbial Sense.

RULE VIII.—Accusative of Specification.

378. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application:

¹ The Ablative of the person is often omitted, and, instead of the Accusative of the thing, a clause is often used. With $postul\bar{v}$ and $quaer\bar{v}$ the Ablative with $d\bar{e}$ occurs. For examples and for other special constructions, see Dictionary.

² See 371, II.

³ As a rare exception, moneo admits a noun as the Accusative of the thing; see Plant., Stich., 1, 2, 1.

The Accusative of Specification is closely related to the Cognate Accusative and to the Poetic Accusative after Passive verbs used reflexively, both of which readily pass in adverbial construction. Thus capita in capita vēlāmur and galeam in galeam

Capita vēlāmur, we have our heads veiled (are veiled as to our heads, or have veiled our heads). Verg. Nūbe humerōs amictus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud. Hor. Mīles frāctus membra labōre, the soldier with limbs shattered with labor (broken as to his limbs). Hor. Aenēās ōs deō similis, Aeneas like a god in appearance. Verg.

- 1. In a strict sense, the Accusative of Specification generally specifies the part to which the action or quality particularly belongs. In this sense, it is nostly poetic, but occurs also in prose. See Ablative of Specification, 424.
- 2. In a freer sense, this Accusative includes the adverbial use of partem, vicem, nihil, of id and genus in id temporis, id aetātis (at this time, age), id genus, 1 omne genus, quod genus (for ējus generis, etc.), etc.; also of secus, rēs, and of many neuter pronouns and adjectives—hōc, illud, id, quid (454, 2), multum, summum, cētera, rēliqua, etc. In this sense, it is common in prose:

Maximam partem lacte vivunt, they live mostly (as to the largest part) upon milk. Caes. Locus id temporis vacuus erat, the place was at this time vacant. Cic. Aliquid id genus! scribere, to write something of this kind. Cic. Alias res est improbus, in other things (as to the rest) he is unprincipled. Plaut. Quaerit, quid possint, he inquires how powerful they are. Caes. Quid venist, why have you come? Plaut.

RULE IX.-Accusative of Time and Space.

379. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative:

Rōmulus septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annōs, Romulus reigned thirty-seven YEARS. Liv. Cỳrus quadrāgintā annōs nātus rēgnāre coepit, Cyrus began to reign (when) forty yeARS old (having been born forty yeARS). Cic. Quīnque mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk five MILES. Cic. Pedēs octōgintā dīstāre, to be cighty feet distant. Caes. Nix quattuor pedēs alta, snow four feet deep. Liv. But—

1. DURATION OF TIME IS sometimes expressed by the Ablative, or by the Accusative with a preposition:

Pügnätum est höris quinque, the battle was fought five hours. Caes. Pe annös viginti certätum est, the war was waged for twenty years. Liv.

2. DISTANCE is sometimes expressed by the Ablative:

Milibus passuum sex à Caesaris castris consédit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from $Caesar^3s$ camp. Caes.

Note.—Ab used adverbially, meaning off, sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Ab mīlibus passuum duōbus castra posucrunt, they pitched their camp two miles OFF. Caes.

induitur are similar constructions, while quid in quaerit quid possint may be explained either as a Cognate Accusative (371, I., 2) or as an Adverbial Accusative.

¹ Some grammarians treat *genus* in all such cases as an *Appositive: aliquid, id* genus, something, this kind; see Draeger, I., p. 2.

RULE X .- Accusative of Limit.

380. The PLACE TO WHICH is designated by the Accusative:

I. Generally with a preposition—ad or in:

Legiones ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city. Cic. Ad mē scrībunt, they are writing to me. Cic. In Asiam redit, he returns into Asia. Nep. Confügit in āram, he fled to the altar. Nep.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv. Plato Tarrentum vēnit, Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Fugit Tarquinios, he fled to Tarquinii. Cic. But—

Note.—Verbs meaning to collect, to come together, etc.—conventō, cōgō, convocō, ctc.—are usually treated as verbs of motion, and thus take the Accusative, generally with a preposition; but verbs meaning to place—locō, collocō, pōnō, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of rest, and thus take the Ablative (425), generally with a preposition:

Unum in locum convenire, to mect in one place. Caes. Côpias in unum locum cogere, to collect forces in one place. Caes. In alterius mană vitam ponere, to place one's life in the hand of another. Cic.

1. In the NAMES OF TOWNS the Accusative with ad occurs—(1) to denote to, toward, in the direction of, into the vicinity of, and (2) in contrast with a or ab:

Très sunt viae ad Mutinam, there are three roads to Mutina. Cic. Ad Zumam pervènit, he came to the vicinity of Zama. Sall. Ā Diāniō ad Sinōpēn, from Dianium to Sinope. Cic.

- 2. Like names of towns are used-
- 1) The Accusatives domum, domos, rūs:

Scipio domum reductus est, Scipio was conducted home. Cic. Domos abducti, led to their homes. Liv. Rus evolure, to hasten into the country. Cic. Domum reditio, a return home. Caes.

2) Sometimes the Accusative of names of islands and peninsulas:

Lătôna cônfūgit Delum, Latona fled to Delos. Cic. Pervēnit Chersonesum, he went to the Chersonesus. Nep.

3) Rarely a few other Accusatives, as exsequiās, infiliās, etc.: 2

Ille infitics ibit, he will deny (will proceed to a denial). Ter.

3. The preposition is sometimes omitted before names of countries, and, in the poets, before names of nations and even before common nouns:

¹ Originally the *place to which* was uniformly designated by the Accusative *without* a preposition. Names of towns have retained the original construction, while most other names of places have assumed a preposition.

² See also the Supine in um, 546.

Aegyptum profügit, he fled to Egypt. Cic. İtaliam vönit, he came to Italy. Verg. İbimus Āfrōs, we shall go to the Africans. Verg. Lāvīnia vēnit lītora, he came to the Lavinian shores. Verg.

4. A POETICAL DATIVE occurs for the Accusative, with or without a preposition:

It clamor caelo (for ad caelum), the shout ascends to Heaven. Verg. Facilis descensus Averno, easy is the descent to Hades. Verg. See 385, 4.

III. ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

RULE XI.-Accusative in Exclamations.

381. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in exclamations:

Heu mē miserum, ah me unhappy! Cic. Mē miserum, me miserable! 1 Cic. Ō fallācem spem, O deceptive hope! Cic. Mē caecum, blind that I am! Cic. Prō deōrum fidem, in the name of the gods! Cic. Hanccine audāciam, this audacity? 2 Cic. But—

Note 1.—An adjective or Genitive generally accompanies this Accusative, as in the examples.

Note 2.— \bar{O} , $\bar{\epsilon}heu$, and heu are the interjections most frequently used with the Accusative, though others occur.

Note 3 .- Other cases also occur in exclamations:

1) The Vocative-when an address as well as an exclamation is intended:

Pro sancte Juppiter, O holy Jupiter. Cic. Infelix Dido, unhappy Dido. Verg.

2) The Nominative—when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement: $\bar{E}n$ dextra, lo the right hand (there is, or that is the right hand)! Verg. Ecce

En destra, LO THE RIGHT HAND (there is, or that is the right hand)! Verg. Ecce tuae literae, LO your LETTER (comes)! Cic.

3) The Dative-to designate the person after ei, vae, and sometimes after $ecce, \tilde{e}n, hem:$ 3

Et mihĬ, woe to me. Verg. Vae tibĬ, woe to you. Ter. Ecce tibĬ, lo to you (lo here is to you = observe). Cic. $\bar{E}n\ tib$ Ĭ, this for you (lo I do this for you). Liv.

SECTION V.

DATIVE.

382. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object, and designates the Person to or for whom, or the Thing to or for which, anything is or is done.

¹ See Milton, 'Paradise Lost,' IV., 73.

² The exclamation may of course be interrogative in character.

³ This is an Ethical Dative; see 389.

⁴ The *Indirect Object* is generally a person, or something personified. Unlike the Direct Object, it is never contained in the action or produced by it, but is in most instances the *interested recipient* of it.

Whether this was the original meaning of the Dative is not known. Delbrück

383. The Dative is used—

- I. With a large class of Verbs and Adjectives;
- II. With a few special Nouns and Adverbs.

RULE XII.-Dative with Verbs.

384. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It is used—

I. With Intransitive and Passive Verbs:

Tibī serviō, I am devoted to you. Plaut. Serviunt populō, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Imperiō pārēbant, they were obedient to (obeyed) authority. Caes. Temporī cēdit, he yields to the time. Cic. Labōrī student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mundus deō pāret, the world obeys God.¹ Cic. Caesarī supplicābō, I will supplicate Caesar.¹ Cic. Nōbīs vīta data est, life has been granted to us. Cic. Numitōrī dēditur, he is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. With Transitive Verbs, in connection with the Direct Object:

Agrōs plēbī dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic. Tibī grātiās agō, I give thanks to you. Cic. Nātūra hominem conciliat hominī, Nature reconciles man to man. Cic. Pōns iter hostibus dedit, the bridge gave a passage to the enemy. Liv. Lēgēs cīvitātibus suīs scrīpsērunt, they prepared laws for their states. Cic.

- 1. The Indirect Object may be-
- 1) The Dative of Influence, designating the person to whom something is or is done:

Serviunt populō, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Agrös plēbī dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic.

2) The Dative of Interest, 2 designating the person for whom something is or is done:

Sibi Megarenses vīcit, he conquered the Megarians for himself. Just.

3) The Dative of Purpose or End,² designating the object or end for which something is or is done:

Receptuī cecinit, he gave the signal for a retreat. Liv.

thinks that this case originally designated the place or object toward which the action tended. See Kuhn's 'Zeitschrift,' vol. xviii., p. 81.

1 Is subject to God; will make supplication to Caesar.

² Observe that the Dative of *Influence* is very closely connected with the verb, and is, in fact, essential to the *completeness* of the sentence; while the Dative of *Interest* and the Dative of *Furpose* are merely added to sentences which would be complete without them. Thus *Megarēnsēs vīcit* is complete in itself.

2. Double Construction.—A few verbs admit—(1) the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (2) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: alicui rem dōnāre, 'to present a thing to any one,' or aliquem rē dōnāre, 'to present any one with a thing':

Praedam militibus donat, he gives the booty to the soldiers. Caes. Atheniënses frumento donavit, he presented the Athenians with grain. Nep.

Note.—This construction may also be used of objects which are in a measure personified, or which involve persons:

Mürum urbī circumdedit, he built a wall around the city. Nep. Deus animum circumdedit corpore, God has encompassed the soul with a body. Cic.

- 3. To and for are not always signs of the Dative. Thus-
- 1) To, denoting mere motion or direction, is generally expressed by the Accusative with or without a preposition (380):

Vēnī ad urbem, I came to the city. Cic. Dēlum vēnimus, we came to Delos. Cic.

Note 1 .- But the Dative occurs in the poets; see 380, 4, and 385, 4.

NOTE 2.—Mittō, 'to send,' and scr?loō, 'to write,' take the Dative, or the Accusative with ad, to denote the person to whom;

Scribit Labiënë, he writes to Labienus. Caes. Scribës ad më, you will write to me. Cic.

2) For, in defence of, in behalf of, is expressed by the Ablative with pro; for the sake of, for the purpose of, sometimes by the Accusative with in:

Prō patriā morī, to die for one's country. Hor. Dimicāre prō libertāte, to fight for liberty. Cic. Satis in ūsum, enough for use. Liv.

4. The Dative sometimes depends, not upon the verb alone, but upon the Predicate as a whole:

Tegimenta galeis 2 milites facere jubet, he orders the soldiers to make coverings for their helmets. Caes. Liberis divites esse volumus, we wish to be rich for the sake of our children. Cic. Quis huic ret testis est, who testifies to this (lit., is a witness for this thing). Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Dative is used with verbs modified by satis, bene, and male, whether written as compounds or not:

Illis satis facere (also written satisfacere), to satisfy them. 3 Caes. Cui bene dixit unquam, for whom has he ever spoken a good word? Cic. Optimō virō maledicere, to revile a most excellent man. Cic.

Note 2.—A Dative is sometimes thus added to the predicate when the English idiom would lead us to expect a Genitive depending upon a noun:

In conspectum venerat hostibus, 4 he had come in sight of the enemy (lit., to the

¹ This double construction occurs chiefly with aspergō, circumdō, circumfundō, dōnō, exuō, impertiō, induō, īnspergō, interclūdō.

² Galeis is best explained as depending upon tegimenta facere, rather than upon facere alone; liberis, as depending upon divites esse volumus, and rei upon testis est.

³ Literally, to do enough for them.

⁴ Hostibus does not depend at all upon conspectum, but upon the entire predicate, in conspectum venerat.

DATIVE.

ENEMY). Cic. Caesari ad pedës proicere, to cast at the feet of Caesar (lit., to Caesar, at the feet). Caes. Mihi horror membra quatit, a shudder shakes my limbs. Verg. Urbi landamenta jacere, to lay the foundations of (for) the city. Liv.

Note 3.—The Dative is sometimes very loosely connected with the predicate, merely

designating the person with reference to whom the statement is true:

Tū illī pater es, you are a father to him. Tac. Triduī iter expedītīs erat, it was a journey of three days for light-armed soldiers. Liv. Est urbe ēgressīs tumulus, there is a mound as you go out of the city. Verg.

5. With Impersonal Passive.—Verbs which admit only an *Indirect Object* in the Λctive are *Impersonal* in the Passive, but they may retain the Dative:

Hostibus resistunt, they resist the enemy. Caes. His sententiis resistitur, resistance is offered to these opinions. Caes. Ne mihi noceant, that they may not injure me. Cic. Mihi nihil noceii potest, no injury can be done to me (lit., injury can be done to me not at all). Cic.

385. WITH Special Verbs.—The *Dative* of the *Indirect Object* is used with many verbs which require special mention. Thus—

I. With verbs signifying to benefit or injure, please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist, and the like:

Sibī prōsunt, they benefit themselves. Cic. Nocēre alterī, to injure another. Cic. Zēnōnī placuit, it pleased Zeno. Cic. Displicet Tullō, it displeases Tullus. Liv. Cupiditātibus imperāre, to command desires. Cic. Deō pārēre, to obey God. Cic. Rēgī servīre, to serve the king. Cic. Hostibus resistere, to resist the enemy. Caes.

II. With verbs signifying to indulge, spare, pardon, threaten, believe, persuade, and the like:

Sibi indulgēre, to indulge one's self. Cic. Vītac parcere, to spare life. Nep. Mihi īgnūscere, to pardon me. Cic. Minitāns patriae, threatening his country. Liv. Īrāseī amīcīs, to be angry with friends. Cic. Mihi crēde, believe me. Cic. Iīs persuādēre, to persuade them. Caes.

Note 1.—Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: $d\bar{e}lect\bar{v}$, $juv\bar{v}$, $laed\bar{v}$, $offend\bar{v}$, etc.:

Marium jūvit, he helped Marius. Nep. Non me fama delectat, fame does not delight me. Cic.

Note 2.—For fido and confido with the Ablative, see 425, 1, 1), note.

Note 3.—The force of the Dative is often found only by attending to the strict mean-

¹ Other examples are: Ā Pylīs euntī locō altō sitī sunt, they are situated in an elevated place as you come (lit., to one coming) from Pylae. Liv. Descendentibus inter duōs lūcōs, as you descend (lit., to those descen ling) between the two groves. Liv. Exscendentibus ad templum māceria erat, there was an enclosure as you ascended to the temple. Liv. In ūniversum aestimantī plūs penes peditem rōboris est, to make a general estimate (lit., to one making, etc.), there is more strength in the infantry. Tac.

ing of the verb: $n\bar{u}b\bar{v}$, 'to marry' (strictly, to veil one's self, as the bride for the bride-groom); medeor, 'to cure' (to administer a remedy to); $satisfaci\bar{v}$, 'to satisfy' (to do enough for), etc.

1. Some verbs admit either the Accusative or the Dative, but with a difference of meaning:

Cavere aliquem, to ward off some one; cavere alicui, to care for some one.

Consulere aliquem, to consult, etc.; alicui, to consult for, etc.

Metuere, timère aliquem, to fear; alicui, to fear for.

Prospicere, providere aliquid, to foresee; alicui, to provide FOR.

Temperare, moderari aliquid, to govern, direct; alicui (of things), to restrain, put a check upon; temperare alicui (of persons), to spare: 1

Hunc tū cavētō, be on your guard against this one (lit., ward him off). Hor. Ēī cavēre volō, I wish to care for him (i. e., to protect him). Cic. Perfidiam timēmus, we fear perfidy. Cic. Sibī timuerant, they had feared for themselves. Caes.

Note.—Dare litter as ad aliquem means to address a letter to some one; but dare litter as alicui generally means to deliver a letter to one as a carrier or messenger:

Litterae mihi ad Catilinam datae sunt, a letter addressed to Catiline was delivered to me. Cic.

2. A DATIVE rendered from occurs with a few verbs of differing, dissenting, repelling, taking away, etc.:

Differre cuivis, to differ from any one. Nep. Sibi dissentire, to dissent from himself. Cic. Somnum mihi adimere, to take sleep from me. Cic.

Note.—For the *Poetical Dative*, see 4, below; and for the *Ablative* with verbs of Separation or Difference, see 413.

3. A Dative rendered with occurs with misceo, admisceo, etc., and sometimes with facio:

Sevēritātem miscēre comitātī, to unite severity with affability. Liv. Quid huic hominī faciās, what are you to do with (to) this man? Cic. See 4 below.

- 4. Dative in Poetry.—In the poets and in late prose-writers, the Dative is used much more freely than in classical prose. Thus it occurs with more or less frequency with the following classes of verbs:
- 1) With verbs denoting Motion or Direction—for the Accusative with ad , or in:

Multös démittimus Orcō (for ad or in Orcum), we send many down to Orcus. Verg. Caelō (for ad caelum) palmās tetendit, he extended his hands toward heaven. Verg. It clāmor caelō, the shout goes to heaven. Verg. See also 392, I.

2) With verbs denoting Separation or Difference 2—instead of the Ablative with ab or dē, or the Accusative with inter:

Sölstitium pecori (for a pecore) defendite, keep off the heat from the flook. Verg. Scurrae distabit amicus, a friend will differ from a jester. Hor. Serta capiti delapsa, garlands fallen from his head. Verg.

¹ Many other verbs take different constructions with different meanings; see $e^{\tilde{c}}d\tilde{o}_{l}$ convenio, cupio, $d\tilde{c}_{l}$ cicio, doleo, maneo, parco, peto, solvo, and volò in the Dictionary.

Thus with arceo, absum, differo, di sentio, dissideo, disto, etc.; see Dictionary.

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3) With verbs denoting Union, Comparison, Contention, and the like instead of the Ablative with cum, or the Accusative with inter:

Miscet ² viris, he mingles with the men. Verg. Concurrere host? (for cum hoste), to meet the enemy. Ov. Sölus tidi certat, he alone contends with you. Verg. Placitöne pügnäbis amöri, will you contend with acceptable love? Verg.

4) In still other instances, especially in expressions of Place:

Haeret lateri (for in latere) arundó, the arrow sticks in her side. Verg. Árdet apex capiti, the helmet gleams upon his head. Verg.

386. Dative with Compounds.—The Dative is used with many verbs compounded with—

ad, ante, con, dē, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super:

Adsum anīcīs, I am present with My friends. Cic. Omnibus antestāre, to surpass all. Cic. Terrīs cohaeret, it cleaves to the earth. Sen. Hŏc Caesurī dēfuit, this failed (was wanting to) Caesar. Caes. Voluptātī inhaerēre, to be connected with pleasure. Cic. Interfuit pūgnae, he participated in the battle. Nep. Cōnsilis obstāre, to oppose plans. Nep. Lībertūtī opēs postferre, to sacrifice wealth to liberty. Liv. Populō praesunt, they rule the people. Cic. Tibǐ prōsunt, they are profitable to you. Cic. Succumbere dolōribus, to yield to sorrows. Cic. Superfuit patrī, he survived his father. Liv.

1. Transitive Verbs thus compounded admit both the Accusative and the Dative:

Se opposuit hostibus, he opposed himself to the enemy. Cic. Capiti subduxerat ensem, she had removed my sword from my head. Verg. See also Libertati opes postferre, above.

2. Compounds of other Prepositions, especially of ab, ex, and circum, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specified under the rule admit the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Silă libertatem abjūdicat, he deprires uimself (sentences himself to the loss) of liberty. Cic. Mihă timorem cripe, free me from fear (lit., snatch away fear for me). Cic. Pūgnā assucscere, to be accustomed to (trained in) battle. Liv. Dicta cum factīs componere, to compare words with deeds. Sall.

3. Motion or Direction.—Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative with or without a preposition: 4

¹ Thus, with cōpulo, jungō, misceō, admisceō, permisceō, nectō, sociō, etc.; certō, contendō, lūctor, pūgnō, etc.

² $Misee\bar{o}$, as a transitive verb, occurs with the Accusative and Dative even in classical prose; see 385, 3; also 371, III., note 2.

³ See assuesco, assuefacio, acquiesco, coeo, cohacreo, colludo, communico, compono, concordo, confero, confligo, congruo, conjungo, consentio, consto, insisto, insideo, insum, and interdico, in the Dictionary. See also Draeger, I., pp. 406-426

⁴ See accidō, accidō, addō, adferō, adhaerēscō, adhibeō, adjungō, adnītor, adserībō, adsum illūdō, incidō, incumbō, incurrō, inferō, offerō, oppēnō, in the Dictionary

Adire ārās, to approach the altars. Cic. Ad consules adire, to go to the consules. Cic. In bellum insistit, he devotes himself to the war. Caes. Ad omne periculum opponitur, he is exposed to every peril. Cic.

4. Several compounds admit either the Accusative or the Dative without any special difference of meaning:

Munitionibus adjacent, they are near the fortifications. Tac. Mare illud adjacent, they are near that sea. Nep. Quibus timor incesserat, whom fear had seized. Sall. Timor patres incessit, fear seized the fathers, Liv.

5. Many compounds which usually take the Accusative or the Ablative with a preposition in classical prose, admit a Dative in poetry:

Quid contendat hirundŏ cycnīs (for cum cycnīs), why should the swallow contend with swans? Lucr. Contendis Homērō, you contend with Homer. Prop. Animis illābī nostrīs (for in animēs nostrōs), to sink into our minds. Verg.

NOTE.—Instead of the compounds of *ad*, *ante*, etc., the poets sometimes use in the same sense the simple verbs ² with the Dative:

Qui haeserat (= adhaeserat) Ēvandrō, who had joined himself to Evander. Verg. Pōnis (= appōnis) mihi porcum, you offer me (place before me) swine's flesh. Martial.

387. The Dative of the Possessor is used with the verb sum:

Mihì est noverca, I have (there is to me) a stepmother. Verg. Fonti nomen Arethusa est, the fountain has (there is to the fountain) the name Arethusa. Cic. But—

Note 1.—The Dative of the Name as well as of the possessor is common in expressions of naming: nomen est, nomen datur, etc.:

Scīpiōnī Āfricānō cōgnōmen fuit, Scipio had the surname Africanus. Sall. Here Āfricānō, instead of being in apposition with cōgnōmen, is put by attraction in apposition with Scīpiōnī.

NOTE 2.—The GENITIVE OF THE NAME dependent upon nomen occurs:

Nomen Mercuri est mihi, I have the name of Mercury. Plaut.

Note 3.—By a Greek Idiom, volêns, cuptêns, or invîtus sometimes accompanies the Dative of the possessor:

Quibus bellum volentibus erat, who liked the war (lit., to whom wishing the war was). Tac.

388. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is used with the Gerundive, and with the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation:

¹ Such are adjaceō, adūlor, antecēdō, antecō, cɨnɨtor, dēspērō (also with dē), illū-dō, incēdō, insultō, invādō, praecurrō, praestō, praestolor.

² Thus ferō for adferō, prōferō; haereō for adhaereō; pōnō for appēnō, dēpônō, ômpēnō, etc.

³ The Dative with est usually expresses simple possession or ownership, like the English have. Habeō is sometimes used in the same sense, but it more commonly expresses some of the shades of meaning denoted by hold, keep, regard, and the like: arcem habère, 'to hold the citadel'; aliquem in obsidione habère, 'to hold or keep me in siege'; pro hoste habère, 'to regard as an enemy.'

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Proelia conjugibus loquenda, battles for women to talk about. Hor. Suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, every one has his own trouble to bear, or must bear his own trouble. Cic.

Note,—Instead of the Dative of the Apparent Agent, the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab is sometimes used:

Quibus est à vobis 2 consulendum, for whom measures must be taken by you. Cic.

1. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of passive verbs:

Mihi consilium captum jam diū est, I have a plan long since formed.1 Cic.

Note.—Habeō with the Perfect Participle has the same force as est mih with the Participle;

Bellum habuit indictum, he had a war (already) declared. Cic.

- 2. The Real Agent, with Passive verbs, is in classical prose denoted by the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab; see 415, I.
- 3. The Dative is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and FOR (TO) whom the action is performed:

Honesta bonis viris quaeruntur, honorable things are sought by good men (i. e., for themselves). Cic.

4. In the Poets, the Dative is often used for the *Ablative* with \bar{a} or ab, to designate simply the agent of the action:

Non intellegor ūllī, I am not understood by any one. Ovid. Rēgnāta arva Saturno, lands ruled by Saturn. Verg.

389. The ETHICAL DATIVE, denoting the person to whom the thought is of special interest, is often introduced into the Latin sentence:

At tibi venit ad mē, but lo, he comes to me. Cic. Ad illa mihi intendat animum, let him, I pray, direct his attention to those things. Liv. Quō mihi abīs, whither are you going, pray? Verg. Quid mihi Celsus agit, what is my Celsus doing? Hor.

¹ The Dative with the *Gerundive*, whether alone or in the *Periphrastic Conjugation*, designates the person who has the work to do; while with the compound tenses of passive verbs it designates the person who has the work already done,

² Here \tilde{a} $v\tilde{c}b\tilde{i}s$ is necessary, to distinguish the Agent from the Indirect Object, qui-bus; but the Ablative with \tilde{a} or ab is sometimes used when this necessity does not exist.

³ The Dative with the Gerundive is best explained as the Dative of Possessor or of Indirect Object. Thus, suum cuique incommodum est means 'every one has his trouble' (cuique, Dative of Possessor); and suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, 'every one has his trouble to bear.' So too, mihi einsilium est, 'I have a plan'; mihi einsilium captum est, 'I have a plan (already) formed.'

⁴ Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'He plucked me ope his doublet and offered them his throat to cut.' Julius Caesar, Act I., Scene III. 'It ascends me into the brain.' Henry IV., Part II., Act IV., Scene III. 'He presently steps me a little higher.' Henry IV., Part I., Act IV., Scene III.

NOTE 1 .- The ETHICAL DATIVE is always a personal pronoun.

Note 2.—The Ethical Dative occurs with volo and with interjections:

Quid võbīs vultis, what do you wish, intend, mean? Liv. Avaritia quid sibi vult, what does avarice mean? or what object can it have? Cic. Ei mihī, ah me! Verg. Vae tibī, woe to you. Ter. See 381, note 3, 3).

RULE XIII.-Two Datives-To which and For which.

390. Two Datives—the object to which and the object of end for which—occur with a few verbs:

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Malŏ est hominibus avāritia, avarice is an evil to men (lit., is to men for an evil). Cic. Est mihš cūrae, it is a care to me. Cic. Domus dēdecorī dominō fit, the house becomes a disgrace to its owner. Cic. Vēnit Atticīs auxiliō, he came to the assistance of the Athenians. Nep. Hŏc illī tribuēbātur īgnāviae, this was imputed to him as cowardice (for cowardice). Cic. Eīs subsidiō missus est, he was sent to them as aid. Nep.

II. With TRANSITIVE verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio reliquit, he left five cohorts for the Defence of the camp (lit., to the camp for a defence). Caes. Pericles agros suos dono rei publicae dedit, Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present (lit., for a present). Just.

Note 1 .- The verbs which take two Datives are-

1) Intransitive verbs signifying to be, become, go, and the like: sum, fão, etc.

2) Transitive verbs signifying to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose, and the like: \$\dilphi_0\$, \$\dilphi_0\$\dilphi_0\$, \$\dilphi_0\$\dilphi_0\$, \$\dilphi_0\$, \$\dilphi_0\$, \$\dilphi_0\$, \$\dilphi_0\$, \$\dilphi_0\$. These take in the Active two Datives with an Accusative; but in the Passive two Datives only, as the direct object of the Active becomes the subject of the Passive; see 464.

Note 2.—One of the Datives is often omitted, or its place supplied by a predicate noun: Ea sunt *ūsuī*, these things are of use (for use). Caes. Tū illī pater es, you are A father to him. Tac. See 362, 2, note 3.

Note 3.—With audiens two Datives sometimes occur, dicto dependent upon audiens, and a personal Dative dependent upon dicto audiens, and sometimes dicto oboediens is used like dicto audiens:

Dictō sum audiens, I am listening to the word. Plaut. Nobīs dictō audiens est, he is obedient to us. Cic. Magistrō dictō oboediens, obedient to his master. Plaut.

RULE XIV.-Dative with Adjectives.

391. With adjectives the OBJECT TO WHICH the quality is directed is put in the Dative:

Patriae solum omnibus cārum est, the soil of their country is dear to all. Cic. Id aptum est temporī, this is adapted to the time. Cic. Omnī aetālī mors est commūnis, death is common to every age. Cic. Canis similis lupō

est, a dog is similar to a wolf. Cic. Naturae accommodatum, adapted to nature. Cic. Graeciae ūtile, useful to Greece. Nep.

1. Adjectives which take the Dative are chiefly those signifying-

Agreeable, easy, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, subject, useful, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning,1 and verbals in bilis.

II. OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:

1. The Accusative with a Preposition: (1) in, ergā, adversus, with adjectives signifying friendly, hostile, etc., and (2) ad, to denote the object or end for which, with adjectives signifying useful, suitable, inclined, etc.:

Perindulgens in patrem, very kind to his father. Cic. Multas ad res perutilis, very useful for many things. Cic. Pronus ad luctum, inclined to mourning. Cic.

2. The Accusative without a Preposition with propior, proximus:

Propier montem, nearer the Mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to the sea. Caes. See 433 and 437.

3. The Ablative with or without a Preposition:

Alicnum ā vītā meā, foreign to my life. Ter. Homine alienissimum, most foreign to or from MAN. Cic. Et cum Roscio communis, common to him and Roscius (with Roscius). Cic.

4. The Genitive: (1) with adjectives used substantively; (2) with adjectives meaning like,2 unlike,2 near, belonging to, and a few others:3

Amīcissimus hominum, the best friend of the Men (i. e., the most friendly to them). Cic. Alexandri similis, like Alexander (i. e., in character). Cic. Dispar sui, unlike ITSELF. Cic. Cujus parts, like whom. Cic. Populi Romānī est propria lībertās, liberty is characteristic of the Roman people. Cic.

Note 1.- Idem occurs with the Dative, especially in the poets:

Idem facit occidenti, he does the same as to kill, or as he who kills. Hor.

Note 2.—For the Genitive and Dative with an adjective, see 399, I., note 1.

RULE XV .- Dative with Nouns and Adverbs.

392. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs:

I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Jūstitia est obtemperātio 4 lēgibus, justice is obcdience to LAWS. Cic.

4 From obtempero, which takes the Dative.

¹ Such are accommodatus, aequalis, alienus, amīcus, inimīcus, aptus, carus, facilis, difficilis, fidėlis, infidėlis, fini imus, grātus, ingrātus, idoneus, jūcundus, iniūcundus, molestus, necessārius, notus, īgnotus, noxius, pār, dispar, perniciosus, propinguus, proprius, salūtūris, similis, dissimilis, diversus, vicinus, etc.

² The Genitive is used especially of likeness and unlikeness IN CHARACTER.

³ As similis, dissimilis, assimilis, consimilis, par, dispar; adfinis, finitimus, propinguus; proprius, sacer, commūnis; alienus, contrarius, insuetus, etc.

Sibt responsio, a reply to himself. Cic. Opulento homini servitus dura est, serving (servitude to) a rich man is hard. Plaut. Facilis descensus Averno, easy is the descent to Avernus. Verg.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:

Congruenter ² nātūrae vīvere, to live in accordance with nature. Cic. Sibī convenienter dīcere, to speak consistently with himself. Cic. Prōxīmē hostium castrīs, next to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

NOTE 1.—In rare instances the Dative occurs with a few nouns and adverbs not included in the rule;

Tribunicia potestas, munimentum libertati, tribunician power, a defence for liberty. Liv. Huic una = una cum hoc, with this one. Verg.

NOTE 2.— For the Dative of Gerundives with official names, see 544, note 3.

NOTE 3.—For the Dative with interjections, see 381, note 3; 389, note 2.

SECTION VI.

GENITIVE.

398. The Genitive in its ordinary use corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with of, and expresses various adjective relations.³

Note.—But the Genitive, especially when objective (396, III.), is sometimes best rendered to, for, from, in, on account of, etc.:

Beneficii gratia, gratitude for a favor. Cic. Labirum fuga, escape from labors. Cic. Ereptae virginis ira, anger on account of the rescue of the maiden. Verg.

394. The Genitive is used chiefly to qualify or limit nouns and adjectives, though it also occurs with verbs and adverbs.

RULE XVI.—Genitive with Nouns.

395. Any noun, not an appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive:

Catōnis ōrātiōnēs, Cato's orations. Cic. Castra hostium, the camp of the enemy. Liv. Mors Hamilcaris, the death of Hamilcar. Liv. Deūm metus, the fear of the gods. Liv. Vir cōnsiliī māgnī, a man of great prudence. Caes. Pars populī, a part of the people. Cic.

¹ From descendo, which admits the Dative in poetry; see 385, 4, 1).

² From congruens, which takes the Dative.

³ The Genitive has nearly the force of an adjective, and means simply of or belonging to. Thus, rēgis, equivalent to rēgius, means of or belonging to a king. On the origin and use of the Genitive, see Hübschmann, p. 106; Merguet, p. 69; Holzweissig, pp. 26 and 73; Draeger, I., pp. 447-498; Roby, II., pp. 116-137.

⁴ Doubtless originally it limited only nouns and adjectives.

NOTE 1 .- For the Appositive, see 363.

Note 2.—An Adjective is sometimes used for the Genitive:

Bellica gloria = belli gloria, the glory of war. Cic. Conjunx Hectorea = conjunx Hectoris, the wife of Hector. Verg. Pugna Marathonia, the battle of Marathon. Cic. Diana Ephesia, Diana of Ephesus. Cic. See 393, foot-note.

NOTE 3 .- For the Predicate Genitive, see 401.

Note 4.—For special uses of the Dative, see 384, 4, note 2.

396. The qualifying Genitive may be—

I. A Possessive Genitive, designating the author and the possessor:

Xenophontis librī, the books of Xenophon. Cic. Fānum Neptūnī, the temple of Neptune. Nep.

II. A SUBJECTIVE GENITIVE, designating the *subject* or *agent* of the action, feeling, etc.:

Serpentis morsus, the bite of the serpent. Cic. Pavor Numidarum, the fear of the Numidians. Liv.

NOTE.—The Possessive Pronoun is regularly used for the Subjective Genitive of Personal pronouns:

Mea domus, my house. Cic. Fāma tua, your fame. Cic.

III. An OBJECTIVE GENITIVE, designating the object toward which the action or feeling is directed:

Amor gloriae, the love of glory. Cie. Memoria malorum, the recollection of sufferings. Cic. Deum metus, the fear of the gods. Liv.

NOTE 1.—For the OBJECTIVE GENITIVE, the Accusative with in, ergā, or adversus is sometimes used:

Odium in hominum genus, hatred of or toward the race of men. Cic. Ergā võs amor, love toward you. Cic.

Note 2.—The Possessive occurs, though rarely, for the $\it Objective$ $\it Genitive$ of Personal pronouns:

Tua fiducia, reliance on you. Cic.

IV. A PARTITIVE GENITIVE, designating the whole of which a part is taken:

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cie. Vitae pars, a part of life. Cie. Omnium sapientissimus, the wisest of all men. Cie.

V. A Descriptive Genitive, also called a Genitive of Characteristic, designating character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc.

Vir māximī consilii, a man of very great prudence. Nep. Mītis ingeniī juvenis, a youth of mild disposition. Liv. Vestis mūgnī pretiī, a garment of great value. Cie. Exsilium decem annorum, an exile of ten years. Nep. Corona parvī ponderis, a crown of small weight. Liv. See 404.

¹ It will be found convenient thus to characterize the different uses of the Genitive by the relation actually existing between the words united by it, though that special relation is not expressed by the case itself, but merely suggested by the meaning of the words inus united.

Note).—The Descriptive Genitive must be accompanied by an adjective or some other modifier, unless it be a compound containing a modifier; as $h\bar{u}jusmod\bar{u} = h\bar{u}jusmod\bar{u} = h\bar{u}jusmod\bar{u}$; $tr\bar{u}du\bar{u}$, from $tr\bar{u}sd\bar{u}s$; $bidu\bar{u}$, from duo (bis) diss.

Note 2.—For id genus = èjus generis, omne genus = omnis generis, see 378, 2.

NOTE 3 .- For the Descriptive Ablative, see 419, II., with note.

VI. An Appositional Genitive, having the general force of an Appositive (363):

Virtus continentiae, the virtue of self-control. Cic. Oppidum Antiochiae, the city of Antioch. Cic. Tellus Ausoniae, the land of Ausonia. Verg.

397. The Partitive Genitive designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—

1. With pars, nēmŏ, nihil; with nouns of quantity, number, weight, etc., as modius, legiŏ, talentum; and with any nouns used partitively:

Equorum pars, a part of the horses. Liv. Nihil novi (441, 2), nothing NEW (of NEW). Cic. Nihil reliqui (441, 2), nothing left (lit., of the rest). Sall. Medimnum tritici, a bushel of wheat. Cic. Pecuniae talentum, a talent of money. Nep. Quorum Gaius, of whom Gaius. Cic.

2. With Numerals used substantively: 1

Quōrum quattuor, four of whom. Liv. Equitum centum, a hundred of the cavalry. Curt. Sapientum octāvus, the eighth of the wise men. Hor. Ūnus pontium, one of the bridges. Caes.

NOTE.—In good prose the Genitive is not used when the two words refer to the same number of objects, even though of be used in English;

Qui (not quirum) duo supersunt, of whom two survive. Cic. Omnes homines, all men. Cic. But see p. 209, note 4, with foot-note,

3. With *Pronouns* and *Adjectives* used substantively, especially with comparatives, superlatives, and neuters:²

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Num quidnam novī, is there anything new (of New)? Cic. Consulum alter, one of the consuls. Liv. Prior horum, the former of these. Nep. Gallorum fortissimī, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes. Id temporis, that (of) time. Cic. Multum operac, much (of) service. Cic.

NOTE 1.—Pronouns and adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Partitive Genitive, take the gender of the Genitive, unless they agree directly with some other word; see *cōnsulum alter*, above.

Note 2.— Uterque, 'each,' 'both,' is generally used as an adjective; but when it is combined in the singular number with another pronoun, it usually takes that pronoun in the Genitive:

Uterque exercitus, each army. Caes. Quae utraque, both of which. Sall. Utrique nostrum 3 gratum, acceptable to each of us. Cic.

Numerals used adjectively agree with their nouns: mīlle hominēs, 'a thousand men'; mīlle hominum, 'a thousand of men'; multī hominēs, 'many men'; multī hominum, 'many of the men.'

² As hŏc, id, illud, quid; multum, plus, plūrimum, minus, minimum, tantum quantum, etc.

³ A Partitive Genitive, because a pronoun.

Note 3.—For the *Partitive Genitive*, the Accusative with **inter** or **ante**, or the Ablative with **ex**, **dē**, or **in**, is sometimes used:

Inter reges opulentissimus, the most wealthy of (among) kings. Sen. Unus ex viris, one of the heroes. Cic. Unus 1 de legatis, one of the lieutenants. Cic.

Note 4.—Poets and late prose writers make a very free use of the Partitive Genitive after adjectives:

Sancta deārum, holy goddess. Enn. Sancte deōrum, O holy god. Verg. Fēstōs diērum, festal days. Hor. Levēs cohortium, the light-armed cohorts. Tac. Inclutus philosophērum, the renowned philosopher. Just. Rēliquum diēī, the rest of the day. Liv. Multum diēī, much of the day. Liv. Rēliquum noctis, the rest of the night. Tac. Strāta viārum = strātae viae, paved streets. Verg. Vāna rērum = vānae rēs, vain things. Hor. Hominum cūnetī, all of the men. Ovid. Cūneta terrārum, all lands. Hor. See also 438, 5.

Note 5.—The Neuter of pronouns and adjectives with the Partitive Genitive is sometimes used of persons:

Quid hoc est hominis, what kind of a man is this? Plaut. Quidquid erat patrum reos diceres, you would have said that all the senators (lit., whatever there was of fathers) were accused. Liv. Quid hoc tantum hominum incedunt, why are so many men (so much of men) coming hither? Plaut.

4. The Partitive Genitive also occurs with a few adverbs, especially when they are used substantively: 3

Armörum adfatim, abundance of arms. Liv. Lūcis nimis, too much (of) light. Ovid. Sapientiae parum, little (of) wisdom. Sall. Partim cöpiärum, a portion of the forces. Liv. Quod ējus facere potest, as far as (what of it) he is able to do. Cic. Nūsquam gentium, nowhere in the world. Cic. Hūc arrogantiae, to this degree of insolence. Tac. Māximē omnium, most of all. Cic.

398. Genitive in Special Constructions.—Note the following:

1. The Governing Word is often omitted. Thus-

Aedės, templum, discipulus, homŏ, juvenis, puer, etc.; causa, grātia, and andeed any word when it can be readily supplied:

Ad Jovis (sc. aedem), near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hannibal annorum novem (sc. puer), Hannibal, a boy nine years of age. Liv. Aberant bidul (sc. viam or spatium), they were two days' journey distant. Cic. Conferre vitam Treboni cum Dolăbellae (sc. vitā), to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The governing word is generally omitted when it has been expressed before another Genitive, as in the last example; and then the second Genitive is sometimes attracted into the case of the governing word:

¹ $\bar{U}nus$ is generally followed by the Ablative with ex or $d\bar{e}$, but sometimes by the Genitive.

² Observe that in this case the *partitive* idea has entirely disappeared, and that the construction is *partitive* in *form*, but not in *sense*.

³ As with adverbs of QUANTITY—abunde, adfatim, nimis, parum, partim, quoad, satis. etc.; of Place—hīc, hūc, nūsquam, ubž. etc.; of Extent, Degree, etc.—eō, hūc, quō; and with superlatives. As adverbs are substantives or adjectives in origin, it is not strange that they are thus used with the Genitive.

Nătūra hominis bēluīs (for bēluārum nātūrae) antecēdit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

Note 2.—In many cases where we supply son, daughter, husband, wife, the ellipsis is only apparent, the Genitive depending directly on the proper noun expressed:

Hasdrubal Gisconis, Gisco's Hasdrubal, or Hasdrubal the son of Gisco. Liv. Hectoris Andromache, Hector's Andromache, or Andromache the wife of Hector. Verg.

2. Two Generally subjective, the other either objective or descriptive:

Memmī odium potentiae, Memmius's hatred of power. Sall. Helvētiōrum injūriae populī Rōmānī, the wrongs done by the Helvetii to the Roman people. Caes. Superiorum dierum Sabīnī cunctātiŏ, the delay of Sabinus during (lit., of) the preceding days, Caes.

3. A GENITIVE sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Genitive of ipse, sōlus, ūnus, or omnis:

Tua ipsĭus amīcitia,¹ yoūr own friendship. Cic. Meum sõlĭus peccātum, my fault alone. Cic. Nomen meum absentis, my name in my absence. Cic.

4. The Genitive is used with instar, 'likeness,' 'image,' in the sense of as large as, of the size of, equal to:

Instar montis equus, a horse of the size of a mountain. Verg.

5. The Genitive is used with prīdiē, postrīdiē, ergō, and tenus: 2

Prīdiē ējus diēī, on the day before that day. Caes. Postrīdiē ējus diēī, on the day after that day. Caes. Virtūtis ergō, on account of virtue. Cic. Lumbōrum tenus, as far as the loins. Cic. For tenus with the Ablative, see 434.

RULE XVII.—Genitive with Adjectives.

399. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning:

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Cic. Ōtiī cupidus, desirous of leisure. Liv. Cōnscius conjūrātiōnis, cognizant of the conspiracy. Sall. Amāns suī virtūs, virtue fond of itself. Cic. Efficiēns voluptātis, productive of pleasure. Cic. Glōriae memor, mindful of glory. Liv.

Note.—This Genitive corresponds to the Objective Genitive with nouns:

Amor glóriae, the love of glory. Cic. Appetens glóriae, desirous of (eager for) glory. Cic.

- I. The Genitive is used with adjectives denoting-
- 1. DESIRE OF AVERSION: 3

I Ipsīus may be explained as agreeing with tuī (of you), involved in tua, and solīus and absentis as agreeing with meī (of me), involved in meum.

² These words are strictly nouns, and, as such, govern the Genitive. Pridie and postrīdie are Locatives; ergō is an Ablative, and tenus, an Accusative; see 304; 307, note 1.

³ Such are—(1) avidus, cupidus, studičsus; fastīdičsus, etc.; (2) gnārus, īgnorus, consultus, conscius, īnscius, nescius, certus, incertus; providus, prūdēns, imprū

Contentionis cupidus, desirous of contention. Cic. Sapientiae studiosus, studious of (student of) wisdom. Cic. Terrae fastidiosus, weary of the land. Hor.

2. Knowledge, Skill, Recollection, with their contraries: 1

Rěī gnārus, acquainted with the thing. Cic. Prūdēns rěi mīlitāris, skilled in military science. Nep. Perītus bellī, skilled in war. Nep. Īnsuētus labōris, unaccustomed to labor. Caes. Glōriae memor, mindful of glory. Liv. Immemor beneficiī, forgetful of kindness. Cic

3. Participation, Guilt, Fulness, Mastery, with their contraries: 1

Adfinis culpae, sharing the fault. Cic. Rationis particeps, endowed with (sharing) reason. Cic. Rationis expers, destitute of reason. Cic. Manifestus rerum capitalium, convicted of capital crimes. Sall. Vita metus plena, a life full of fear. Cic. Meī potens sum, I am master of myself. Liv. Virtūtis compos, capable of virtue. Cic.

Note 1.—The Genitive and Dative sometimes occur with the same adjective:

Mens sibi conscia recti, a mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Verg. Sibi conscii culpae, conscious to themselves of fault. Cic.

Note 2.—For the Genitive with adjectives used substantively, and with adjectives meaning like, unlike, near, belonging to, etc., see 391, II., 4.

Note 3.—For the Genitive with dignus and indignus, see 421, note 3.

II. The Genitive is used with Verbals in $\bar{a}x$, and with Present Participles used adjectively:

Virtutum ferax, productive of virtues. Liv. Tenax propositi, tenacious (steadfast) of purpose. Hor. Amans patriae, fond of his country.² Cic. Fugiens laboris, shunning labor. Caes.

III. In the pocts and in late prose writers, especially in Tacitus, the Genitive is used—

 With adjectives of almost every variety of signification, simply to define their application:³

Aevī matūrus, mature in age. Verg. Ingēns vīrium, mighty in strength. Sall. Sērī studiōrum, late in studies. Hor. Integer aevī, unimpaired in age (i. e., in the bloom of youth). Verg. Aeger animī, afflicted in spirit. Liv. Ānxius animī, anxious in mind. Sall. Fīdīns animī, confident in spirit. Verg.

2. With a few adjectives, to denote cause:

Lactus laborum, pleased with the labors. Verg. Notus animī paternī, distinguished for paternal affection. Hor.

dēns; perītus, imperītus, rudis, īnsuētus; memor, immemor, etc ; (3) adfīnus, consors, exsors, expers, particeps, manifestus, noxius; plēnus, fertilis, refertus, egēnus, inops, vacuus; potēns, impotēns, compos, etc.

1 See foot-note 3, page 210.

2 Amāns patriae, 'fond of his country,' represents the affection as permanent and constant; whereas the participial construction, amāns patriam, 'loving his country,' designates a particular instance or act.

³ Like the Ablative of Specification; see 424. For vôti reus, 'bound to fulfil a vow,' see 410, III., note 2.

* Probably a Locative in origin, as animīs is used in similar instances in the plural.

400. Adjectives which usually take the Genitive, sometimes admit other constructions:

1. The DATIVE:

Manus subitīs avidae, hands ready for sudden events. Tac. Īnsuētus moribus Romānīs, unaccustomed to Roman manners. Liv. Facinorī mens conscia, a mind conscious of crime. Cic. See 391.

2. The Accusative with a preposition:

Insuētus ad pūgnam, unaccustomed to battle. Liv. Fertilis ad omnia, productive for all things. Plin. Avidus in novās rēs, eager for new things. Liv.

3. The Ablative with or without a preposition:

Prūdēns in jūre cīvīlī, learned in civil law. Cic. Hīs dē rībus cōnscius, aware of these things. Cic. Vacuus de dēfīnsōribus, destitute of defenders. Caes. Cūrīs vacuus, free from cares. Cic. Refertus bonīs, replete with blessings. Cic. See 414, III.

RULE XVIII.—Predicate Genitive.

401. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive:

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy. Liv. Senātus Hannibalis erat, the senate was Hannibal's (i. e., in his interest). Liv. Jūdicis est vērum sequī, to follow the truth is the duty of a judge. Cic. Parvī pretiī est, it is of small value. Cic. Tyrus mare suae diciōnis 3 fēcit, Tyre brought the sea under (lit., made the sea of) her sway. Curt.

Note 1.—For a noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing, see 362; 373, 1.

Note 2.—A Predicate Genitive is often nearly or quite equivalent to a *Predicate adjective* (360, note 1): hominine set = himanum est, 'it is the mark of a man,' 'is human'; stultī est = stultum est, 'it is foolish.' The Genitive is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: sapiēntis est (for sapiēns est), 'it is the part of a wise man,' 'is wise.'

NOTE 3.—Possessive pronouns in agreement with the subject supply the place of the Predicate Genitive ⁴ of personal pronouns:

Est tuum (not tui) videre, it is your duty to see. Cic.

Note 4.—Aequī, bonī, and rěliquī occur as Predicate Genitives in such expressions as aequī facere, aequī bonīque facere, bonī cīnsulere, 'to take in good part,' and rěliquī facere, 'to leave':

Aequi bonīque faciō, I take it in good part. Ter. Mīlitēs nihil rěliqui vīctīs fēcēre, the soldiers left nothing to the vanquished. Sall.

¹ Literally, were of the enemy, or were the enemy's.

² Literally, is of A JUDGE.

³ Here dicionis, denoting a different thing from mare, of which it is predicated, is put in the Genitive.

⁴ This is another illustration of the close relationship between a Predicate Genitive and a Predicate Adjective; see also note 2.

402. The Predicate Generally Possessive or Descriptive, rarely Partitive:

Haec hostium erant, these things were of (belonged to) THE ENEMY. Liv. Est imperatoris superare, it is the duty of a commander to conquer. Caes. Summae facultatis est, he is (a man) of the highest ability. Cic. Opera magnifult, the assistance-was of great value. Nep. Fies nobilium fontium, you will become one of the noble fountains. Hor.

403. The Predicate Genitive occurs most frequently with sum and facio, but sometimes also with verbs of seeming, regarding, etc.:

Ōram Rōmānae dicionis fēcit, he brought the coast under (made the coast of) Roman rule. Liv. Hominis vidētur, it seems to be the mark of a man. Cic. See also examples under 401.

Note.—Transitive verbs of this class admit in the active an Accusative with the Genitive, as in the first example.

404. The Predicate Genitive of Price or Value is used with *sum* and with verbs of *valuing*:

Māgnī sunt tuae litterae, your letters are of great value. Cic. Plūris esse, to be of greater value. Cic. Parvī pendere, to think lightly of. Sall. Auctoritātem tuam māgnī aestimo, I prize your authority highly. Cic.

NOTE 1.—With these verbs the *Genitive of price* or *value* is generally an *adjective*, 2 as in the examples, but *pretii* is sometimes used:

Parvi pretii est, it is of little value. Cic.

Note 2 - Nihili and, in familiar discourse, a few other Genitives 3 occur:

Nihili facere, to take no account of. Cic. Non flocei pendere, not to care a stran (lock of wool) for. Plaut.

405. Tantī, quantī, plūris, and minōris are also used as GENITIVES OF PRICE with verbs of buying and selling: 4

Ēmit hortōs tantī, he purchased the gardens at so great a price. Cic. Vēndō frumentum plūris, I sell grain at a higher price. Cic.

Note .- For the Ablative of price, see 422.

RULE XIX.—Genitive with Special Verbs.

406. The Genitive is used—

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserere laborum, pity the labors. Verg. Miserescite regis, pity the king. Verg.

¹ Facultātis and māgnī are Descriptive, but fontium is Partitive.

² The following adjectives are so used: māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī; plūris, mi-nōris; plūrinī, māximī, and minimī.

³ As assis, flocci, nauci, and pili.

⁴ Observe that verbs of buying and selling admit the Genitive of price only when one of these adjectives is used. In other cases they take the Ablative of price.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor: 1

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past. Cic. Oblitus sum mel, I have forgotten myself. Ter. Flägitiorum recordārī, to recollect base deeds. Cic. Reminīscī virtūtis, to remember virtue. Caes.

III. With refert and interest:

Illörum refert, it concerns them. Sall. Interest omnium, it is the interest of all. Cic.

Note.—The expression, Venit in mentern, 'it occurs to mind,' is sometimes construed with the Genitive and sometimes with the Nominative:

Venit mihi Platonis in mentem, the recollection of Plato comes to my mind, or 1 recollect Plato. Cic. Non venit in mentem pugna, does not the battle occur to your mind? Liv.

407. Verbs of REMEMBERING and FORGETTING often take the Accusative instead of the Genitive:

Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Cic. Triumphōs recordari, to recall triumphs. Cic. Ea reminiscere, remember those things. Cic.

Note 1.—The Accusative is the common construction (1) with recordor and (2) with the other verbs, if it is a neuter pronoun or adjective, or designates an object remembered by a contemporary or an eye-witness.

Note 2.—The Ablative with de is rare:

Recordare de ceteris, bethink yourself of the others. Cic.

408. The Construction with refert and interest is as follows:

I. The Person or Thing interested is denoted—

- 1. By the Genitive, as under the rule.
- 2. By the Ablative Feminine of the Possessive.3 This takes the place of the Genitive of personal pronouns:

Meā rēfert, it concerns me. Ter. Interest meā, it interests me. Cic.

3. By the Dative, or Accusative with or without Ad; but rarely, and chiefly with refert, which moreover often omits the person:

Quid refert viventi, what does it concern one living? Hor. Ad me refert, it concerns me. Plaut.

II. The Subject of Importance, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive or Clause, or by a Neuter Pronoun:

¹ The Genitive with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting probably depends upon the substantive idea contained in the verbs themselves; see Internal Object, 371, I., 2. Thus, memini with the Accusative means I remember distinctly and fully, generally used of an eye-witness or of a contemporary; but with a Genitive, it means to have some recollection of. With refert the Genitive depends upon $r\bar{e}$, the Ablative of $r\bar{e}s$, contained in the verb, and with interest it may be a Predicate Genitive, or may simply follow the analogy of $r\bar{e}fert$.

² With venit in mentem, the Genitive Platônis supplies the place of subject. It probably limits the pronominal subject already contained in venit, as in every Latin verb, it or that of Plato, the recollection of Plato.

⁸ See foot-note 1, above.

Interest omnium recte facere, to do right is the interest of all. Cic. Vestra hoc interest, this interests you. Cic.

III. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an Adverb, by a Neuter used adverbially, or by a Genitive of Value (404):

Vestrā māximē interest, it especially interests you. Cic. Quid nostrā refert, what does it concern us? Cic. Māgnī interest meā, it greatly interests me. Cic.

IV. The Object or End for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with ad, rarely by the Dative:

Ad honorem nostrum interest, it is important for our honor. Cic.

RULE XX.-Accusative and Genitive.

409. The Accusative of the Person and the Geninive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs:

I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:

Te amiciliae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship. Cic. Milites necessitätis monet, he reminds the soldiers of the necessity. Ter.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:

Virōs sceleris arguis, you accuse men of CRIME. Cic. Levitātis eum convincere, to convict him of levity. Cic. Absolvere injūriae eum, to acquit him of injustice. Cic.

III. With miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget: 2

Eōrum nōs miseret, we pity them (it moves our pity of them). Cic. Cōnsiliī mē paenitet, I repent of my purpose. Cic. Mē stultitiae meae pudet, I am ashamed of my folly. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Genitive of the Thing designates, with verbs of reminding, etc., that to which the attention is called; with verbs of accusing, etc., the crime, charge; and with miseret, paenitet, etc., the object which produces the feeling; see examples.

NOTE 2.—The personal verbs included under this rule retain the Genitive in the Passive:

Accūsātus est proditionis, he was accused of treason. Nep.

¹ The Genitive with verbs of reminding and admonishing may be explained like that with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting; see foot-note 1, page 214. With verbs of accusing, etc., the Genitive may also be explained in the same way, or may depend upon nomine, crimine, or jūdiciū, understood. Sometimes one of these nouns is expressed; see 410, II., 1.

² The Genitive with paenitet, pudet, etc., like that with venit in mentem (see 406, note, with foot-note), depends upon the impersonal subject contained in the verb. Thus, te have pudent means these things shame you, and me stultitiae mean pudet, literally rendered, means of my folly (i. e., the thought of it, or something about it), shames me. The Genitive with miseret may be explained either in the same way, or like that with misereor; see foot-note 1, page 214.

Note 3.—In judicial language a few verbs not otherwise so used are treated as verbs of accusing. Thus condico occurs with the Genitive in Livy, I., 32.

- 410. Special Constructions.—The following deserve notice:
- I. Verbs of Reminding and Admonishing sometimes take, instead of the Genitive—
- 1. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely of a substantive, thus admitting two accusatives:

Illud me admones, you admonish me of that. Cic.

- 2. The Ablative with de-moneo and its compounds generally so:
- De proelio vos admonui, I have reminded you of the Battle. Cic.
- II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive of the crime, etc.—
 - 1. The Genitive with nomine, crimine, jūdicio, or some similar word:

Nomine conjurationis damnati sunt, they were condemned on the charge of conspiracy. Cic. Innocentem judicio capitis arcessere, to arraign an innocent man on a capital charge. Cic.

2. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely:

Id mē accūsās, you accuse me of that. Plaut.

3. The Ablative alone or with a preposition, generally de:

De pecunis repetundis damnatus est, he was convicted of extortion. Cie.

III. With verbs of Condemning, the *Penalty* is generally expressed by the *Ablative*, or by the *Accusative with a preposition*, usually ad:

Tertia parte damnārī, to be condemned to forfeit a third of one's tand. Liv. Capite damnāre, to condemn to death. Cic. Morte multāre, to punish with death. Cic. Ad bēstias condemnāre, to condemn to the wild beasts. Suet.

Note 1 .- In the poets the penalty is sometimes expressed by the Dative:

Morti damnātus, condemned to death. Lucr.

Note 2.—The Genitive occurs in such special expressions as capitis condemnāre, 'to condemn to death'; $v\bar{v}t\bar{t}$ $damn\bar{u}r\bar{t}$, 'to be condemned to fulfil a vow' = 'to obtain a wish'; $damn\bar{u}r\bar{t}$ $long\bar{t}$ $lab\bar{v}ris$, 'to be condemned to long labor'; $v\bar{v}t\bar{t}$ $reus^2 = v\bar{v}t\bar{t}$ $damn\bar{u}tus$, 'condemned to fulfil a vow':

Aliquem capitis condemnāre, to condemn one to death. Cic. Damnātus longī labōris, condemned to long labor. Hor.

IV. With Miseret, Paenitet, Pudet, Taedet, and Piget, an *Infinitive* or *Clause* is sometimes used, rarely a neuter pronoun or *nihil*:

Mē paenitet vīxisse, I repent having lived. Cie. Tē haec pudent, these things shame you. Ter.

Note 1.—Like miseret are sometimes used miserèscit, commiserèscit, miserètur, commiserètur. Like taedet are used pertaedet, pertaesum est.

Note 2.—Pudet sometimes takes the Genitive of the person before whom one is a shamed:

Me tui pudet, I am ashamed in your presence. Ter. Pudet hominum, it is a shame in the sight of men. Liv.

¹ Regularly so when the penalty is a definite sum of money.

² Best explained as a substantive.

Note 3 .- Pertaesus admits the Accusative of the object:

Pertaesus ignāviam suam, disgusted with his own inaction. Suet.

V. Many other verbs sometimes take the Genitive. Thus-

1. Some verbs of plenty and want, as compleo, impleo, egeo, indigeo, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 3):

Virtus exercitationis indiget, virtue requires exercise. Cic. Auxilii egere, to need aid. Caes. Multitudinem religionis implevit, he inspired (filled) the multitude with religion. Liv. Rerum satagere, to be occupied with (to do senough of) business. Ter.

2. Some verbs of desire, emotion, or feeling, like adjectives of the same

meaning (399, I., 1):

Cupiunt tuī, they desire you. Plaut. Tuī testimonii veritus, fearing your testimony. Cic. Animī pendeo, I am uncertain in mind. Cic. Discrucior animī, I am troubled in spirit. Plaut. Te angis animī, you make yourself anxious in mind. Plaut. Desipere mentis, to be foolish in mind, or mistaken in opinion. Plaut.

3. A few verbs denoting mastery or participation, like adjectives of the

same meaning (399, I., 3), potior, 4 adipīscor, rēgnō:

Siciliae potitus est, he became master of Sicily. Nep. Rērum adeptus est, he obtained the power. Tac. Rēgnāvit populorum, he was king of the peoples. Hor.

4. In the poets, a few verbs 5 take the Genitive, instead of the Ablative of

Separation or Cause (413):

Abstinere îrarum, to abstain from anger. Hor. Laborum decipitur, he is beguiled of his labore. Hor. Desine querelarum, cease from complaints. Hor. Desistere pugnae, to desist from the battle. Verg. Eum culpae liberare, to free him from blame (i. e., to acquit him). Liv. Mirari laborum, to admire because of toils. Verg. Danni înfecti promittere, to give surety in view of expected damage. Cic.

Note .- For the Genitive of Gerunds and Gerundives, see 542, I.; 544.

SECTION VII.

ABLATIVE.

411. The LATIN ABLATIVE performs the duties of three cases originally distinct:

I. The Ablative Proper, denoting the relation from:

Expulsus est patriā, he was banished from his country. Cic.

- 1 Transitives of this class of course admit the Accusative with the Genitive.
- ² See **421**, II.
- 3 Animi in such instances is probably a Locative in origin, as animis is used in the same way in the plural. See foot-note on animi, 399, III., 1.
 - 4 Potior takes the Genitive regularly when it means to reduce to subjection.
 - 5 As abstineo, decipio, desino, desisto, levo, lībero, etc.: mīror, etc.
- 6 These three cases, still recognized in the Sanskrit, originally had distinct forms but in the Latin, under the influence of phonetic change and decay, these forms have

II. The Instrumental, denoting the relation with, by: Sol omnia luce collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic. III. The Locative, denoting the relation in, at: So oppido tenet, he keeps himself in the town. Cic.

I. ABLATIVE PROPER.

RULE XXI.-Place from which.

412. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative:

I. Generally with a preposition—ā, ab, dē, or ex:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city. Caes. De foro, from the forum. Cic. Ex Africa, from (out of) Africa. Liv.

II. In Names of Towns without a preposition:

Platonem Athenis arcessivit, he summoned Plato from Athens. Nep. Fügit Corintho, he fled from Corinth. Cic.

 Many names of islands, and the Ablatives domo and rūre, are used like names of towns:

 $Dom\bar{o}$ profügit, he fled from home. Cic. $D\bar{e}l\bar{o}$ proficiscitur, he proceeds from Delos. Cic.

2. The Ablative of places not towns is sometimes used without a preposition, especially in poetry:

Cadere nubilus, to fall from the clouds. Verg. Labi equo, to fall from a horse. Hor.

3. The preposition is sometimes used with names of towns, especially for emphasis or contrast:

Ab Ardea Rômam věněrunt, they came from Ardea to Rome. Liv.

Note.—The preposition is generally used when the vicinity, rather than the town ttself, is meant:

Discessit à Brundisiö, he departed from Brundisium (i. e., from the port). Caes.

RULE XXII.—Separation, Source, Cause.

413. Separation, Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Separation.—Caedem ā vōbīs dēpellō, I ward off slaughter from you. Cic. Hunc ā tuīs ārīs arcēbis, you will keep this one from your altars.

become identical, and their uses have been blended in a single case called the Ablative. On the general subject of the *Ablatire* and its use, see Merguet, pp. 109-117; Delbrück Hübschmann, pp. 82-106; Holzweissig, pp. 28 and 75; Draeger, I., pp. 494-571; Roby II., pp. 68-115.

¹ This was the original construction for all places alike.

Cic. Expulsus est patria, he was banished from his country. Cic. Urbem commeatu prīvāvit, he deprived the city of supplies. Nep. Conatu destitērunt, they desisted from the attempt. Caes. Vāgīnā ēripe ferrum, draw your sword from its scabbard. Verg.

Source.—Hoe audivi de parente meo, I heard this from My Father. Cic. Oriundi ab Sabinis, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Abiete puppis, the stern made of fir. Verg. Jove natus, son of Jupiter. Cic.

Cause.—Ars ūtilitāte laudātur, an art is praised because of its usefulness. Cic. Lacrimō gaudiō, I weep for (on account of) joy. Ter. Vestrā hōc causā volēbam, I desired this on your account. Cic. Rogātū vēneram, I had come by request. Cic. Ex vulnere aeger, ill in consequence of his wound. Cic. Aeger erat vulneribus, he was ill in consequence of his wounds. Nep.

Note 1.—Transitive Verbs admit an Accusative with the Ablative; see examples.

Note 2.—The *prepositions* most frequently used with the Ablative of Separation and Source are \tilde{a} , ab, $d\tilde{e}$, \tilde{e} , ex, and with the Ablative of Cause, $d\tilde{e}$, \tilde{e} , ex.

NOTE 3.—With the Ablative of Separation the preposition is more freely used when the separation is local and literal than when it is figurative: de fore, 'from the forum'; ex Asia, 'out of Asia'; but levare meta, 'to relieve from fear'; conata desistere, 'to desist from the undertaking,'

NOTE 4.—For the Genitive instead of the Ablative of Separation, see 410, V., 4; and for the Dative similarly used, see 385, 2.

414. The Ablative of Separation designates that from which anything is separated, or of which it is deprived, and is generally used without a preposition in the following situations:

I. With verbs meaning to relieve, deprive, need, be without: 1

Leva me hoc onere, relieve me of this burden. Cic. Vinclis exsolvere, to release from chains. Plant. Molestia expedire, to relieve of trouble. Cic. Militem praeda fraudare, to defraud the soldiery of booty. Liv. Non egeo medicīna, I do not need a remedy. Cic. Vacare culpa, to be free from fault. Cic. See also examples under 413.

II. With moveō in special expressions: 2

Signum movere loca, to move the standard from the place. Cic.

III. With adjectives meaning free from, destitute of: 3

Animus liber cũrũ, a mind free from care. Cic. Expers metu, rree from fear. Cic. Urbs nuda praesidio, a city destitute of defence. Cic.

Note.—For a similar use of the Genitive, 4 see 399, I., 3.

IV. With opus and usus, meaning need:

2 As in movere loco, movere senatu, movere tribu, movere vestīgio.

¹ As expedio, exonero, levo, relevo, libero, relaxo, solvo, absolvo, exsolvo: exuo, fraudo, nudo, orbo, spolio, privo, etc.

³ \bar{A} or ab is generally used with names of persons and sometimes with other words.

⁴ Egēnus, indigus, sterilis, and some others are freely used with the Genitive; see 399, I., 8.

Auctoritate tua nodis opus est, we need (there is to us a need of) your authority. Cic. Usus est tua mihi opera, I need your aid. Plaut.

NOTE 1.—In most other instances a preposition accompanies the Ablative of Separation, though often omitted in poetry and in late prose.

Note 2.—Opus est and usus est admit the Dative of the person with the Ablative of the thing; see examples.

NOTE 3.—With opus and usus, the Ablative is sometimes a perfect participle, or, with opus, a noun and a participle:

Consulto opus est, there is need of deliberation. Sall. Opus fuit Hirtio convento there was need of meeting Hirtius. Cic.

NOTE 4.—With opus est, rarely with ūsus est, the thing needed may be denoted—

1) By the Nominative, rarely by the Genitive or Accusative:

Dux nöbis opus est, we need a leader, or a leader is necessary (a necessity) for us Cic. Temporis opus est, there is need of time. Liv. Opus est cibum, there is need of food. Plant.

2) By an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Supine:

Opus est të valëre, it is necessary that you be well. Cic. Opus est ut lavem, it is necessary for me to bathe (that I bathe). Plaut. Dictū est opus, it is necessary to be told. Ter.

- 415. The ABLATIVE OF SOURCE more commonly takes a preposition; see examples under 413. It includes agency, parentage, material, etc.
- I. The agent or author of an action is designated by the Ablative with a or ab:

Occisus est à Thébanis, he was slain by the Thebans. Nep. Occidit à forti Achille, he was slain (lit., fell) by brave Achilles. Ov.

1. The Ablative without a preposition may be used of a *person*, regarded not as the *author* of the action, but as the *means* by which it is effected:

Cornua Numidīs 1 firmat, he strengthens the wings with Numidians. Liv.

Note 1.—The Accusative with per may be used of the person through whose agency the action is effected:

Ab Oppianico per Fabricios 1 factum est, it was accomplished by Oppianicus through the agency of the Fabricii. Cic.

NOTE 2.—For the Dative of Agent, see 388.

2. When anything is personified as agent, the Ablative with \tilde{a} or ab may be used as in the names of persons:

Vincī ā voluptāte, to be conquered by pleasure. Cic. Ā fortūnā datam occasionem, an opportunity furnished by fortune. Nep.

II. Perfect Participles denoting parentage or birth—genitus, nātus, prtus, etc.—generally take the Ablative without a preposition:

Jove nātus, son of Jupiter. Cic. Tantalō prognātus, descended from Tantalus. Cic. Parentibus nātī humilibus, born of humble parents. Cic.

¹ Here note the distinction between the Ablative with ab (ab Oppianicō), denoting the author of the action, the Accusative with per (per Fabriciōs), the person through whose agency the action was performed, and the Ablative alone (Numidīs), the means of the action.

Note.—In designating Remote Ancestry, \tilde{a} or ab is generally used; but after $n\tilde{a}tus$ and ortus, the Ablatives $famili\tilde{a}$, genere, $loc\tilde{o}$, and stirpe, when modified by an adjective, omit the preposition:

Oriundi ab Sabinis, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Orti ab Germanis, sprung from the Germans. Caes. Nobili genere natus, born of a noble family. Sall.

III. With the Ablative of Material, ē or ex is generally used, though often omitted, especially in poetry:

Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Pocula ex auro, cups of gold. Cic. Aere cavo clipeus, a shield of concave bronze. Verg. Abiete puppis, the stern made of fir. Verg.

Note 1.—A special use of the Ablative, kindred to the above, is seen with facio, fio, and sum in such expressions as the following:

Quid hôc homine facias, what are you to do with this man? Cic. Quid illo fict, what will become of him? Cic. Quid to futurum est, what will become of you? Cic.

Note 2.—The Dative or the Ablative with de occurs in nearly the same sense:

Quid huic homini facias, what are you to do with (or to) this man? Cic. Quid de te futurum est, what will become of you? Cic.

- 416. The ABLATIVE OF CAUSE is generally used without a preposition. It designates that by reason of which, because of which, in accordance with which anything is or is done, and is used both with verbs and with adjectives; 2 see examples under 413.
 - I. CAUSE is sometimes denoted-
 - 1) By the Ablative with ā, ab, dē, ē, ex, prae:

Ab eadem superbia and non venire, not to come because of the same haughtiness. Liv. Ex vulnere agger, ill in consequence of his wound. Cic. Ex invidia laborare, to suffer from unpopularity. Cic. Non prae lacrimis scribere, not to write in consequence of tears. Cic.

2) By the Accusative with ob, per, propter:

Per aetatem inutiles, useless because of (lit., through) their age. Caes. In oppidum propter timorem sese recipiunt, they betake themselves into the city on account of their fear. Caes.

Note 1.—With transitive verbs the motive which prompts the action is often expressed by the Ablative with a perfect passive participle:

Regni cupiditate i inductus conjurationem fecit, influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy. Caes.

NOTE 2.—That in accordance with which anything is done is often denoted by the Ablative with \$\ille{e}\$ or ex:

- ¹ The Ablative of Cause is very far removed from the original meaning of the Ablative, and indeed in some of its uses was probably derived from the Instrumental Ablative; see 418.
- ² This includes such Ablatives as $me\tilde{o}$ $j\tilde{u}dici\tilde{o}$, in accordance with my opinion; $me\tilde{d}$ sententi \tilde{u} , $juss\tilde{u}$, $impuls\tilde{u}$, $monit\tilde{u}$, etc.; $caus\tilde{u}$, $gr\tilde{u}ti\tilde{u}$; also the Ablative with $d\tilde{e}$ -sipi \tilde{o} , $dolc\tilde{o}$, $exsili\tilde{o}$, $exsili\tilde$
 - 3 See note 2, foot-note.
- 4 Here cupiditate must be construed with inductus, yet it really expresses the cause of the action, fecit.

Rés ex foedere repetuntur, restitution is demanded in accordance with the treaty. Liv. Dies ex praeceptis twis actus, a day passed in accordance with your precepts. Cic. Ex veritate aestimare, to estimate in accordance with the truth. Cic. Ex auctoritate 1 senatus confirmare, to ratify on the authority of the senate. Liv.

RULE XXIII.-Ablative with Comparatives.

417. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative:

Nihil est amābilius virtūte, nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Quid est melius bonitāte, what is better than goodness? Cic. Scīmus sōlem mājōrem esse terrā, we know that the sun is larger than the earth. Cic. Amīcitia, quā nihil melius habēmus, friendship, than which we have nothing better. Cic. Lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit, nothing dries sooner than a tear. Cic. Potiōrem īrā salūtem habet, he regards safety as better than anger. Liv.

1. Comparatives with Quam are followed by the Nominative, or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Hibernia minor quam Britannia existimătur, Ireland is considered smaller than Britain. Caes. Agris quam urbi terribilior, more terrible to the country than to the city. Liv.

Note I.—The construction with quam is the full form for which the Ablative is an abreviation. The Ablative is freely used for quam with a Subject Nominative or Subject Accusative—regularly so for quam with the Nominative or Accusative of a relative pronoun, as in the fourth example under the rule. In other cases quam is retained in the best prose, though sometimes omitted in poetry.

Note 2.—After $pl\bar{u}s$, minus, amplius, or longius, in expressions of number and quantity, quam is often omitted without influence upon the construction; ⁴ sometimes also after $m\bar{u}jor$, minor, etc.;

Tecum plus annum vixit, he lived with you more than a year. Cic. Minus due milia, less than two thousand. Liv.

Note \widehat{S} .—Instead of the Ablative after a comparative, a preposition with its case, as ante, prae, praeter, or $supr\widehat{a}$, is sometimes used:

Ante aliös immanior, more monstrous than (before) the others. Verg.

NOTE 4.—Alius, involving a comparison, other than, is sometimes used with the Ablative.

- ¹ These and similar Ablatives with prepositions show the transition from source to cause, and illustrate the manner in which the latter was developed from the former. The Δ blative with the preposition seems in general to retain something of the idea of source.
- ² This Ablative furnishes the *standard* of comparison—that from which one starts. Thus, if virtue is taken as the standard of what is lovely, nothing is more so. This Ablative is sometimes explained as instrumental (418), but that view is controverted by a similar use of the Greek Genitive, which does not contain the instrumental Ablative, and of the Sanskrit Ablative, which is often distinct from the instrumental.
- 3 Virtute = quam virtus; bonitute = quam bonitus; terru = quam terram (sc. esse).
- 4 So in expressions of age: nātus plūs trīgintā annōs, 'having been born more than thirty years.' The same meaning is also expressed by mājor trīgintā annōs nātus, mājor trīgintā annōs, mājor quam trīgintā annōrum, or mājor trīgintā annōrum.

Quaerit alia his, he seeks other things than these. Plaut. Alius sapiente, other than a wise man. Hor.

Note 5.— $Quam\ pr\bar{o}$ denotes disproportion, and many Ablatives— $opini\bar{o}ne$, $sp\bar{e}$, $aequ\bar{o}$, $j\bar{u}st\bar{o}$, $solit\bar{o}$, etc.—are often best rendered by clauses:

Minor caedes quam pro victoria, less slaughter than was proportionate to the victory. Liv. Serius spe venit, he came later than was hoped (than hope). Liv. Plūs aequo, more than is fair. Cic.

2. With Comparatives, the Measure of Difference, the amount by which one thing surpasses another, is denoted by the Ablative:

Hibernia dimidio minor quam Britannia, Ireland smaller by one half than Britain. Caes,

II. INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

418. The Instrumental Ablative denotes both Accompaniment and Means.²

RULE XXIV .- Ablative of Accompaniment.

419. The Ablative is used—

I. To denote Accompaniment. It then takes the preposition cum:

Vīvit cum Balbō, he lives with Balbus. Cic. Cum gladiīs stant, they stand with swords (i. e., armed with swords). Cic.

II. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

Summā virtūte adulēscēns, a youth of the highest virtue. Caes. Quīdam māgnō capite, ōre rubicundō, māgnīs pedibus, a certain one with a large head, with a red face, and with large feet. Plaut. Catilina ingeniō malō fuit, Catiline was a man of a bad spirit. Sall. Ūvī sunt speciē taurī, the urus vs (lit., the uri are) of the appearance of a bull. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative, when used to denote *characteristic* or *quality*, may be called either the *Descriptive Ablative* or the *Ablative of Characteristic*.

III. To denote Manner.³ It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

¹ See 423.

² The idea of means was probably developed from that of accompaniment, as seen in such expressions as cum omnibus copiis sequitur, 'he pursues with all his forces'—accompaniment, which readily suggests means, as he employs his forces as means; equis iverunt, 'they went with horses'—accompaniment and means. Some scholars have conjectured that originally accompaniment and means were expressed by separate case-forms, but of this there seems to be little proof

³ Note the close connection between these three uses of the Ablative—the first designating an attendant person or thing—with Balbus, with swords; the second, an attendant quality—a youth with (attended by) the highest virtue; the third, an attend

Cum virtûte vîxit, he lived virtuously. Cic. Summā vī proelium com mīsērunt, they joined battle with the greatest violence. Nep. Duōbus modīs fit, it is done in two ways. Cic.

Note 1.—The Ablative of manner sometimes takes cum even when modified by an adjective:

Māgnā cum cūrā scrīpsit, he wrote with great care. Cic.

Note 2.—But the Ablative of a few words is sometimes used without *cum*, even when unattended by an adjective, as jūre, 'rightly'; injūriā, 'unjustly'; ordine, 'in an orderly manner'; ratiōne, 'systematically'; silentiō, 'in silence,' etc.¹

NOTE 3.—Per, with the Accusative, sometimes denotes MANNER: per vim, 'violently'; per lūdum, 'sportively.'

- 1. On the ABLATIVE OF ACCOMPANIMENT, observe-
- 1) That cum is often omitted—(1) especially when the Ablative is qualified by an adjective, and (2) after jungō, misceō, and their compounds:

Ingenti exercitu profectus est, he set out with a large army. Liv. Improbitas scelere juncta, depravity joined with crime. Cic.

2) That the Ablative with cum is often used of hostile encounters:

Cum Gallis certare, to fight with the Gauls. Sall. Nobiscum hostes contenderunt, the enemy contended with us. Cic.

Note. - For the Dative with verbs denoting union or contention, see 385, 4, 3).

- 2. On the Descriptive Ablative, as compared with the Descriptive Genitive, observe—
- 1) That in descriptions involving size and number, the Genitive is used; see examples under 396, V.
- 2) That in most descriptions involving external characteristics, parts of the body, and the like, the Ablative is used, as in the second and fourth examples under 419, II.
 - 3) That in other instances either case may be used.
- 4) That the Ablative, like the Genitive, may be used either with nouns, as in the first and second examples under 419, II., or with verbs in the predicate, as in the other examples.

RULE XXV .-- Ablative of Means.

420. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative:

Cornibus taurī sē tūtantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns. Cic. Glöriā dūcitur, he is led by glory. Cic. Sōl omnia lūce collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic. Lacte vīvunt, they live upon milk. Caes. Tellūs saucia vomeribus, the earth turned (wounded) with the ploughshare. Ovid.

ant circumstance—to live with virtue, virtuously. Compare cum Balbō vivere and cum virtüte vivere.

¹ But perhaps most Ablatives which never take *cum* are best explained as the Ablative of *cause*—as *lēge*, 'according to law'; *cōnsuētūdine*, 'according to custom'; according to custom'; according to custom'

Note.—This Ablative is of frequent occurrence, and is used both with verbs and with adjectives.

- 1. The following expressions deserve notice:
- Quadrăgintă hostiis sacrificăre, to sacrifice with forty victims. Liv. Facere vitulă, to make a sacrifice of (lit., WITH) a female calf. Verg.
- 2) Fidibus cantare, to play upon a stringed instrument. Cic. Pila ludere, to play at ball (lit., with the ball). Hor.
- 3) Aurēliā viā proficīscī, to set out by the Aurelian way. Cic. Eodem itinere īre, to go by the same road. Liv. Esquilīnā portā ingredī, to enter by the Esquiline gate. Liv.
- 4) Virtute praeditus, possessed of virtue. Cic. Legiones pulchris armis praeditas, legions furnished with beautiful arms. Plant.
- 2. Adficio with the Ablative forms a very common circumlocution: honore adficere = honorare, to honor; admiratione adficere = admirari, to admire; poena adficere = pūnīre, to punish, etc.:

Omnēs laetitiā adficit, he gladdens all. Cic.

RULE XXVI.—Ablative in Special Constructions.

421. The Ablative is used—

I. With utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimīs rēbus fruimur et ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things. Cic. Māgnā est praedā potītus, he obtained great booty. Nep. Lacte et carne vescēbantur, they lived upon milk and flesh. Sall.

II. With VERBS and ADJECTIVES OF PLENTY:

Villa abundat lacte, cāscō, melle; the villa abounds in milk, cheese, and honey. Cic. Urbs referta copiīs, a city filled with supplies. Cic. Virtūte praeditus, endowed with virtue. Cic. Deus bonīs explēvit mundum, God has filled the world with blessings. Cic.

III. With dīgnus, indīgnus,2 and contentus:

Dīgnī sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship. Cic. Vir patre dīgnus, a man worthy of his father. Cic. Honore indīgnissimus, most unworthy of honor. Cic. Nātūra parvō contenta, nature content with little. Cic.

Note 1.—Transitive verbs of Plenty 3 take the Accusative and Ablative: Armis naves onerat, he loads the ships with arms. Sall. See also the last example under 421, II.

Note 2.—Dignor, as a Passive verb meaning 'to be deemed worthy,'

¹ This Δblative is readily explained as the Ablative of means: thus, ūtor, 'I use,' 'I serve myself by means of'; fruor, 'I enjoy,' 'I delight myself with'; vescor, 'I feed upon,' 'I feed myself with,' etc.

² The nature of the Ablative with *dignus* and *indignus* is somewhat uncertain. On etymological grounds it is explained as *instrumental*; see Delbrück, p. 72; Corssen, *Krit. Beitr., 'p. 47.

³ Transitive verbs of plenty mean 'to fill,' 'to furnish with,' etc., as cumulō, compleō, impleō, imstruō, onerō, ōrnō, etc.

takes the Ablative; but as a Deponent verb meaning 'to deem worthy,' used only in poetry and late prose, it takes the Accusative and Ablative;

Honore dignati sunt, they have been deemed worthy of honor. Cic. Me dignor honore, I deem myself worthy of honor. Verg.

Note 3.—Dignus and indignus occur with the Genitive:

Dignus salūtis, worthy of safety. Plaut. Indignus avorum, unworthy of their ancestors. Verg.

Note 4.— $\bar{U}tor$, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, originally transitive, are occasionally so used in classic authors. Their participle in dus is passive in sense. $\bar{U}tor$ admits two Ablatives of the same person or thing:

Mē ūtētur patre, he will find (use) me a father. Ter.

NOTE 5.—For the Genitive with potior, see 410, V., 3. For the Genitive with verbs and adjectives of plenty, and for the Accusative and Genitive with transitive verbs of plenty, see 410, V., 1, with foot-note, and 399, I., 3.

RULE XXVII.-Ablative of Price.

422. PRICE is generally denoted by the Ablative:

Vēndidit aurō patriam, he sold his country for gold. Verg. Condūxit māgnō domum, he hired a house at a high frice. Cic. Multō sanguine Poenīs vīctōria stetit, the victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to the Carthaginians at) much blood. Liv. Quīnquāgintā talentīs aestimārī, to be valued at fifty talents. Nep. Vīle est vīgintī minīs, it is cheap at twenty minae. Plaut.

Note 1.—The Ablative of Price is used (1) with verbs of buying, selling, hiring, letting; (2) of costing, of being cheap or dear; (3) of valuing; (4) with adjectives of value.

Note 2.—With verbs of Exchanging—mūtō, commūtō, etc.—(1) the thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling, but (2) sometimes the thing given is treated as the price, as with verbs of buying, or is put in the Ablative with cum:

Pâce bellum mutăvit, he exchanged war for for peace. Sall. Exsilium patriâ mutăvit, he exchanged ins country for evile. Curt. Cum patriae văritâte gloriam commutăvit, he exchanged love of country for glory. Cic.

NOTE 3 .- For the GENITIVE OF PRICE, see 405.

RULE XXVIII.-Ablative of Difference.

423. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:

Ūnō diē longiōrem mēnsem faciunt, they make the month one day longer (longer by one day). Cic. Biduō mē antecessit, he preceded me by two days. Cic. Sōl multīs partibus mājor est quam terra, the sun is very much (lit., by many parts) larger than the earth. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Ablative is thus used with all words involving a comparison, but adverbs often supply its place; multum röbustior, 'much more robust,'

NOTE 2.—The Ablative of difference includes the Ablative of distance (379, 2), and the Ablative with ante, post, and abhinc in expressions of time (430).

¹ As stō, consto, liceo, sum, etc.; carus, vēnālis, etc.

RULE XXIX.-Specification.

424. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application:

Agësiläus nomine, non potestate fuit rëx, Agesilaus was king in name, not in power. Nep. Claudus altero pede, lame in one foot. Nep. Moribus similës, similar in character. Cic. Reliquos Gallos virtute praecedunt, they surpass the other Gauls in courage. Caes.

NOTE 1.—This Ablative shows in what respect or particular anything is true: thus, king (in what respect?) in name.

NOTE 2.—For the Accusative of Specification, see 378.

III. LOCATIVE ABLATIVE.

RULE XXX.-Place in which.

425. The Place in which is denoted—

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in:

Hannibal in *İtaliā* fuit, *Hannibal was* in Italy. Nep. In nostrīs castrīs, in our camp. Caes. In Appiā viā, on the Appian way. Cic.

II. In Names of Towns by the Locative, if such a form exists, otherwise by the Locative Ablative:

Rōmae fuit, he was at Rome. Cic. Corinthī puerōs docēbat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cic. Athēnīs fuit, he was at Athens. Cic. Hǒc facis Argīs, you do this at Argos. Hor. Karthāgine rēgēs creābantur, kings were elected (created) at Carthage. Nep. Gādibus vīxit, he lived at Gades. Cic.

Note.—For the construction with verbs meaning to collect to come together, and with those meaning to place, see 380, note.

- 1. In the names of places which are not towns, the LOCATIVE ABLATIVE is often used without a preposition:
- 1) When the idea of means, manner, or cause is combined with that of place: 3.

Castrīs sē tenuit, he kept himself in camp. Caes. Aliquem tēctō recipere, to receive any one in one's own house. Cic. Proeliō cadere, to fall in battle. Caes. Adulescentibus delectarī, to take pleasure in the young. Cic. Suā

¹ The learner will remember that the *Locative Ablative* does not differ in *form* from any other Ablative; see 411.

 $^{^2}$ See 48, 4; 51, 8; 66, 4. The Locative was the original construction in all names of places.

 $^{^3}$ In some cases *place* and *means* are so combined that it is difficult to determine which is the original conception.

vīctōriā glōriantur, they glory in their victory. Caes. Nullo officio assuēfactī, trained in no duty. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative is generally used with fīdō, cōnfīdō, nītor, innītor, and frētus:
Nēmō fortūnae stabilitūte cōnfīdit, no one trusts (confides in) the stability of fortune. Cic. Salūs vēritāte nītitur, safety rests upon truth. Cic. Frētus amīcīs, relying upon his friends. Liv.

2) When the idea of place is figurative rather than literal:

Nova pectore versat consilia, she devises (turns over) new plans in her breast. Verg. Stare jūdiciīs, to abide by (stand in) the decisions. Cic. Promissis manere, to remain true to promises (lit., remain in). Verg. Pendere animis, to be perplexed in mind. Cic. Intimis sensibus angi, to be troubled in one's inmost feelings. Cic. Ferox bello, valiant in war. Hor. Jūre perītus, skilled in law. Cic.

2. The Ablatives loco, locos, parte, partibus, dextra, laeva, and sinistra are often used without the preposition. Terra and mari and Ablatives with totus are generally so used.

Aliquid loco ponere, to put anything in its place. Cic. Terra marique, on land and sea. Liv. Tota Graecia, in all Greece. Nep.

NOTE 1.—The Ablative libro, 'book,' generally takes the preposition when used of a portion of a work, but omits it when used of an entire treatise:

In eō librō, in this book (referring to a portion of the work). Cic. Aliō librō, in another work. Cic.

NOTE 2.—Other Ablatives sometimes occur without the preposition, especially when qualified by omnis, medius, or universus:

Omnibus oppidīs, in all the towns, Caes.

Note 3.—In poetry the Locative Ablative is often used without the preposition:

Lūcīs opācīs, in shudy groves. Verg. Silvīs agrīsque, in the forests and fields. Ov. Theātrīs, in the theatres. Hor. Ferre umero, to bear upon the shoulder. Verg.

- 3. ABLATIVE FOR THE LOCATIVE.—Instead of the Locative in names of towns the Ablative is used, with or without a preposition—
- When the proper name is qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun: In ipsā Alexandrīā,² in Alexandria itself. Cic. Longā Albā, at Alba. Longa. Verg.
 - 2) Sometimes when not thus modified:

In monte Albānō Lāvīniōque, on the Alban mount and at Lavinium. Liv. In Alexandrīā,² at Alexandria. Liv.

Note.—The following special constructions deserve notice:

In oppidō Citiō, in the town Citium. Nep. Albae, in urbe opportuna, at Alba, a convenient city. Cic.

 $^{^1}$ In the singular $anim\bar{i}$ is generally used, a Locative probably both in form and in signification; see p. 211, foot-note 4.

² At Alexandria would regularly be expressed by the Locative, Alexandriae.

³ Here Citiò is in apposition with oppidō, the usual construction in such cases, though a Genitive limiting oppidō occurs: In oppidō Antiochīae, in the city of Antioch. Cic.

⁴ A Locative may thus be followed by in urbe, or in oppidō, modified by an adjective; but see 363, 4, 2). The preposition in is sometimes omitted.

426. LIKE NAMES OF TOWNS are used-

1. Many NAMES OF ISLANDS:

Lesbī vīxit, he lived in Lesbos. Nep. Conon Cyprī vīxit, Conon lived in Cyprus. Nep.

2. The Locatives domi, rūrī, humī, mīlitiae, and bellī:

Domī mīlitiaeque, at home and in the field. Cic. Rūrī agere vītam, to spend life in the country. Liv.

Note.—A few other Locatives also occur:

Rōmae Numidiaeque, at Rome and in Numidia. Sall. Domum Chersonesis habuit, he had a house in the Chersonesus. Nep. Truncum reliquit arcnae, he left the body in the sand. Verg.

427. Summary.—The Names of Places not towns are generally put—

I. In the Accusative with ad or in, to denote the PLACE TO WHICH:

In Asiam redit, he returns to (into) Asia. Nep.

II. In the Ablative with ab, do, or ex, to denote the place from which:
Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city. Caes.

III. In the Locative Ablative with in, to denote the PLACE AT OF IN WHICH: Hannibal in Italia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep.

Note.—For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 3 and 4; 412, 2; 425, 1 and 2.

428. Summary.—The Names of Towns are put 2—

I. In the Accusative, to denote the PLACE TO WHICH:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv.

II. In the Ablative, to denote the PLACE FROM WHICH:

Fügit Corintho, he fled from Corinth. Cic.

III. In the *Locative*, or in the *Locative Ablative*, to denote the place at or in which:

Corinthī pueros docēbat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cic. Gādibus vīxit, he lived at Gades. Cic.

Note.—For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 1; 412, 3; 425, 3.

RULE XXXI.—Time.

429. The TIME of an Action is denoted by the Ablative:

Octōgēsimō annō est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year. Cic. Vēre convēnēre, they assembled in the spring. Liv. Nātālī diē suō, on his birth-

¹ So also terrae and viciniae.

² This, the original construction for all names of places, has been retained unchanged only in the names of towns and in a few other words. Most names of places have assumed a preposition with the Accusative and Ablative, and have substituted the Locative Ablative with a preposition in place of the Locative; see 411, III.

³ That is, the *Locative* is used if any such form exists; if not, the *Locative Ablative* supplies its place.

day. Nep. Hieme et aestäte, in winter and summer. Cic. Sõlis occāsū, at sunset. Caes. Adventū Caesaris, on the arrival of Caesar. Caes. Lūdīs, at the time of the games. Cic. Vix decem annīs, scarcely in ten years. Nep. His vīgintī annīs, within these twenty years. Cic.

1. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Ablative with in or de:

In tâlī tempore, at such a time (i. e., under such circumstances). Liv. In dièbus prōximis decem, in the next ten days. Sall. Dè mediā nocte, in (lit., from, out of) the middle of the night. Caes.

2. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Accusative with ad, in, inter, intrā, sub, etc.:

Ad constitutam diem, at the appointed day. Cic. Ad conam invitare in posterum diem, to invite to dinner for the next day. Cic. Intra viginti dies, within twenty days. Plaut. Inter tot annos, within so many years. Cic. Sub noctem, toward night. Caes.

430. The Interval between two events may be denoted by the Accusative or Ablative with ante or post:²

Aliquot post mēnsēs o occīsus est, he was put to death some months after. Cic. Post diēs paucēs vēnit, he came after a few days. Liv. Paucīs ante diēbus, a few days before. Cic. Homērus annīs multīs fuit ante Rēmulum, Homer lived many years before Romulus. Cic. Paucēs diēbus post ējus mortem, a few days after his death. Cic. Annīs quīngentīs post, five hundred years after. Cic. Quārtum post annum quam redierat, four years after he had returned. Nep. Nēnē annē postquam, nine years after. Nep. Sextē annē quam erat expulsus, six years after he had been banished. Nep.

Note 1.—In these examples observe—

- 1) That the numeral may be either cardinal, as in the sixth example, or ordinal, as in the last three.4
- 2) That with the Accusative ante and post either precede the numeral and the noun, or stand between them; but that with the Ablative they either follow both, or stand between them.⁵
- 3) That quam may follow ante and post, as in the seventh example; may be united with them, as in the eighth, or may be used for postquam, as in the ninth.

NOTE 2 .- The ABLATIVE OF THE RELATIVE may be used for postquam:

Quatriduō, quō occīsus est, four days after he was killed. Cic.

- ¹ The Ablative with in is used to denote (1) the circumstances of the time, and (2) the time in or within which. In the second sense it is used especially after numeral adverbs and in designating the periods of life: bis in $di\bar{e}$, 'twice in the day'; in pueritiā, 'in boyhood,' etc.
- ² In two instances the Ablative with abhinc is used like the Ablative with ante: Abhine triginta diebus, thirty days before. Cic.
- ³ The Accusative after ante and post depends upon the preposition, but the Ablative is explained as the measure of difference (423).
- ⁴ Thus, 'five years after' = quinque annis post, or quintō annō post; or post quinque annōs, or post quintum annum; or with post between the numeral and the noun, quinque post annis, etc.
 - ⁵ Any other arrangement is rare.

NOTE 3.—The time since an event may be denoted by the Accusative with abhinc of ante, or by the Ablative with ante:1

Abhine annos trecentos fuit, he lived three hundred years ago. Cic. Paucis ante diebus erupit ex urbe, he broke out of the city a few days ago. Cic.

RULE XXXII.—Ablative Absolute.2

431. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance:

Serviō rēgnante viguērunt, they flourished in the reign of Scrvius (Servius reigning). Cic. Rēgibus exāctīs, cōnsulēs creātī sunt, after the banishment of the kings, consule were appointed. Liv. Equitātū praemissō, subsequēbātur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Caes. Rēgnum haud satis prōsperum neglēctā rěligiōne, a reign not sufficiently prosperous bec use religion was neglected. Liv. Perditīs rēbus omnibus tamen virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though all things are lost, still virtue is able to sustain itself. Cic. Obsidibus imperātīs, hōs Aeduīs trādit, having demanded hostages, he delivers them to the Aedui. Caes.

- 1. The Ablative Absolute, much more common than the English Nominstive Absolute, generally expresses the time, cause, or some attendant circumstance of an action.
- 2. This Ablative is generally best rendered—(1) by a noun with a preposition—in, during, after, by, with, through, etc.; (2) by an active participle with its object; or (3) by a clause with when, while, because, if, though, etc.; see examples above.
 - 3. A connective sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Nisi munitis castris, unless the camp should be fortified. Caes.

4. A noun and an adjective, or even two nouns, may be in the Ablative Absolute:

 $^{^1}$ The Accusative is explained as duration of time (379), the Ablative as measure of difference (423).

² This Ablative is called absolute, because it is not directly dependent for its construction upon any other word in the sentence. Originally Locative, it was first used to denote situation or time, a meaning from which its later uses may be readily derived. Thus, while the force of a Locative Ablative is apparent in Servio regnante and in regibus exacts, it is recognized without difficulty in neglecta religione as indicating the situation or state of things in which the reign was not prosperous. In some instances, however, the Ablative Absolute may be instrumental or causal.

³ Or, while Servius was reigning or was king.

⁴ Or, after the kings were banished.

⁶ In this example obsidibus and $h\bar{o}s$ refer to the same persons. This is unusual, as in this construction the Ablative generally refers to some person or thing not otherwise reentioned in the clause to which $i\epsilon$ belongs.

⁶ The first method of translation comes nearer the original Latin conception, but the other methods generally accord better with the English idiom.

⁷ This construction is peculiar to the Latin. In the corresponding constructions in Sanskrit, Greek, and English, the present participle of the verb 'to be' is used.

Sereno caelo, when the sky is clear. Sen. Caninio consule, in the consulship of Caninius. Cic.

NOTE 1.—An infinitive or clause may be in the Ablative Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Audītō Dārīum movisse, pērgit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had, etc., having been heard), he advanced. Curt. Multī, incertō quid vītārent, interiērunt, many, uncertain what they should avoid (what they, etc., being uncertain), perished. Liv.

Note 2.—A participle or adjective may stand alone in the Ablative Absolute:

Multum certăto, pervicit, he conquered after a hard struggle. Tac.

Note 3:—Quisque or ipse in the Nominative may accompany the Ablative Absolute: Multis sibî quisque petentibus, while many sought, each for himself. Sall. Causā ipse prō sē dictā damnātur, having himself advocated his own cause, he is condemned. Liv.

Note 4.—For the use of absente and praesente in the Ablative Absolute with a plural noun or pronoun, see 438, 6, note.

SECTION VIII.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

RULE XXXIII.—Cases with Prepositions.

432. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions:

Ad amīcum scrīpsī, I have written to a friend. Cic. In cūriam, into the senate-house. Liv. In Ĭtaliā, in Italy. Nep. Prō castrīs, before the camp.

433. The Accusative is used with-

Ad, adversus (adversum), ante, apud, circā, circum, circiter, cis, citrā, contrā, ergā, extrā, īnfrā, inter, intrā, juxtā, ob, penes, per, pone, post, praeter, prope, propter, secundum, suprā, trāns, ūltrā, versus:

Ad urbem, to the city. Cic. Adversus deos, toward the gods. Cic. Ante lücem, before light. Cic. Apud concilium, in the presence of the council. Cic. Circă forum, around the forum. Cic. Citră flümen, on this side of the river. Cic. Contră nătūram, contrary to nature. Cic. Intră mūrōs, within the walls. Cic. Post castra, behind the camp. Caes. Secundum nătūram, according to nature. Cic. Trāns Alpēs, across the Alps. Cic.

Note t .- Exadversus (um) also occurs with the Accusative:

Exadversus eum locum, over against that place. Cic. See also 437.

Note 2.— $Versus\ (um)$ and usque, as adverbs, often accompany prepositions, especially ad and in:

Ad oceanum versus, toward the ocean. Caes. Ad meridiem versus, toward the south. Liv. Usque ad castra hostium, even to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

¹ Literally, it having been much contested. The participle is used impersonally.

² On the general subject of Prepositions and their Use, see Roby, II., pp. 351-456; Draeger, I., pp. 574-665; Kühner II., pp. 355-432

NOTE 3.—For propius, prōximē, propior, and prōximus, with the Accusative, see prope, note 2, under I., below.

Note 4.—For compounds of prepositions, see 372 and 376.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Accusative deserve notice:

Ad, to, the opposite of ab, FROM—(1) to, TOWARD, TILL; (2) NEAR, AT, ON: ad mē, 'to me,' 'near me,' 'at my house'; ad urbem, 'to the city,' 'near the city'; ad dextram, 'on the right'; ad multam noctem, 'till late in the night'; ad lūcem, 'till daybreak'; ad hōc, 'besides this,' 'moreover'; ad verbum, 'word for word'; ad hune modum, 'after this manner'; ad ūltimum, 'at last'; ad ūnum omnēs, 'all to a man,' 'all without exception.'

Apud, NEAR, AT, BEFORE, IN THE PRESENCE OF: apud oppidum, 'near or before the town'; apud mē, 'at my house'; sum apud mē, 'I am at home' or 'I am in my right mind'; apud Platōnem, 'in the works of Plato.'

Ante, BEFORE, IN FRONT OF, ABOVE, IN PREFERENCE TO: ante suös annös, 'before his time,' 'too early'; ante tempus, 'before the proper time'; ante annum, 'a year before'; ante urbem conditam, 'before the founding of the city'; ante aliös pulcherrimus omnēs, 'the most beautiful above all others.'

Circum, circã, circiter, ROUND, AROUND, ABOUT: circum forum, 'around the forum'; circã sē, 'around or with himself'; circã eandem hōram, 'about the same hour'; circiter merîdiem, 'about midday.'

Note.—Circum, the oldest of these forms, is used only of place; circā, both of place and of time; circiter, rare as a preposition, chiefly of time. They are all freely used as adverbs: circum conventre, 'to gather around'; circā esse, 'to be around'; circiter pars quarta, 'about the fourth part.'

Cis, citrā, on this side—cis opposed to trāns, across, on the other side; citrā opposed to ūltrā, beyond: cis flūmen, 'on this side of the stream'; cis paucōs diēs, 'within a few days'; citrā vēritātem, 'short of the truth'; citrā auctōritātem, 'without authority.'

Contrā, 3 opposite to, over against, against, contrary to: contrā eās regiōnēs, 'opposite to those regions'; contrā populum, 'against the people'; contrā nātūram, 'contrary to nature.'

Ergā, toward, to, against: ergā parentēs, 'toward parents'; odium ergā Romānōs, 'hatred to the Romans'; ergā rēgem, 'against the king.'

Extrā, outside, without, free from, except: extrā portam, 'outside the gate'; extrā culpam, 'without fault,' 'free from fault'; extrā ducem, 'except the leader,' 'besides the leader.'

Infrā, below, under, beneath, less than, after, later than, opposed to suprā, above: infrā lūnam, beneath the moon; infrā mē, below me; infrā trēs pedēs, less than three feet; infrā Lycūrgum, after Lycurgus.

 $^{^{\}mathbf{1}}$ For the form and meaning of prepositions in composition, see 344, 5.

These three forms are all derived from circus, 'a circle' (i. e., from its stem); see 304; 307, note 1.

⁸ These are often adverbs.

⁴ According to Vanicek, from \hat{e} and the root reg in $reg\bar{o}$; 'in the direction of' (literature from the direction of). In Tacitus, sometimes in relation to: $erg\bar{a}$ domum suame and relation to his own household.'

[•] Infra = infera parte, 'in the lower part'

Inter, Between, among, in the midst of: inter urbem et Tiberim, between the city and the Tiber'; inter bonos, 'among the good'; inter manus, 'in the hands,' 'within reach,' 'tangible'; inter uos, 'between us,' in confidence'; inter se amare, 'to love one another'; inter se differre, 'to differ from one another'; inter paucos, inter pauco, 'especially,' 'preëminently'; inter paucos disertus, 'preëminently eloquent'; inter purpuram atque aurum, 'in the midst of purple and gold.'

Intrā, WITHIN, LESS THAN, BELOW, opposed to extrā, ON THE OUTSIDE, WITHOUT: intrā castra, 'within the camp'; intrā mē, 'within me'; intrā sē, 'in his mind' or 'in their minds'; intrā centum, 'less than one hundred' intrā modum, 'within the limit'; intrā fāmam, 'below his reputation.'

Ob, BEFORE, IN VIEW OF, IN REGARD TO, ON ACCOUNT OF: ob oculos, 'before one's eyes'; ob stultitiam tuam, 'in view of your folly,' or 'in regard to your folly'; ob hanc rem, 'in view of this thing,' 'for this reason,' 'on this account'; quam ob rem, 'in view of which thing,' 'wherefore,'

Per, 'THROUGH, BY THE AID OF: per forum, 'through the forum'; per aliös, 'through others,' 'by the aid of others'; per sē, 'by his own efforts,' also 'in himself,' 'in itself'; per metum, 'through fear'; per aetātem, 'in consequence of age'; per lūdum, 'sportively'; per vim, 'violently'; per mē licet, 'it is allowable as far as I am concerned' (i. e., I make no opposition).

Post, BEHIND, AFTER, SINCE: post montem, 'behind the mountain'; post dedicationem templi, 'after the dedication of the temple'; post hominum memoriam, 'since the memory of man.'

Praeter, 5 BEFORE, ALONG, PAST, BY, BEYOND, BESIDES, EXCEPT, CONTRARY TO: praeter oculos, 'before their eyes'; praeter oram, 'along the coast'; praeter ceteros, 'beyond others,' 'more than others'; praeter have = praeter-ea, 'besides these things,' 'moreover'; praeter me, 'except me'; praeter spem, 'contrary to expectation.'

Prope, propter, NEAR, NEAR BY. Prope, NEAR; propter = propeter, a strengthened form of prope, Very NEAR, Aloneside of, also in view of, on account of: prope hostes, 'near the enemy'; prope metum, 'near to fear,' 'almost fearful'; propter mare, 'near the sea'; propter timorem, 'on account of fear'; propter se, 'on his own account,' 'on their own account.'

Note 1.—Prope, as an adverb, is sometimes combined with \tilde{a} , ab, or ad: prope \tilde{a} Sicilia, 'near Sicily,' 'not far from Sicily'; prope ad portas, 'near to the gates.'

Note 2.—Like prope, the derivatives propius and prōximē, and sometimes even propior and prōximus, admit the Accusative: 7

Propius periculum, nearer to danger. Liv. Proxime deos, very near to the gods.

¹ Formed from in by the ending ter, like prae-ter from prae (434, I.), prop-ter from prope (433, I.), and sub-ter from sub (435, I.).

² Often equivalent to in meō animō, 'in my mind.'

⁸ Sometimes, in his country, or in their country.

[&]quot; In origin kindred to the Greek παρά.

⁵ Formed from prae (434, I.), like in-ter from in; see inter, with foot-note.

⁶ See inter, with foot-note.

Perhaps by a construction according to sense, following the analogy of prope, though in most cases a preposition may readily be supplied.

Cic. Propior montem, nearer to the mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to the

Secundum, 1 Following, NEXT AFTER, NEXT BEHIND, ALONGSIDE OF, CONFORMING TO, ACCORDING TO, IN FAVOR OF: secundum āram, 'behind the altar'; secundum deōs, 'next after the gods'; secundum lūdōs, 'after the games'; secundum flūmen, 'along the river'; secundum nātūram, 'according to nature,' 'following nature'; secundum causam nostram, 'in favor of our cause.'

Suprā,3 on the top, above, before, too high for; opposed to infrā, selow: suprā lūnam, 'above the moon'; suprā hanc memoriam, 'before, our time'; 4 suprā hominem, 'too high for a man.'

Trāns, Across, on the other side, opposed to cis, on this side: trāns Rhēnum, 'across the Rhine'; trāns Alpēs, 'on the other side of the Alps.'

Ūltrā, BEYOND, ACROSS, ON THE OTHER SIDE, MORE THAN, LONGER THAN, AFTER, opposed to citrā, on this side: ūltrā eum locum, 'beyond that place'; ūltrā eum, 'beyond him'; ūltrā pīgnus, 'more than a pledge'; ūltrā fidem, 'beyond belief,' 'incredible'; ūltrā puerīlēs annōs, 'after (beyond) the years of boyhood,'

434. The ABLATIVE is used with-

 $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ or ab (abs), absque, cōram, cum, dē, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ or ex, prae, prō, sine, tenus.

Ab urbe, from the city. Caes. Cōram conventū, in the presence of the assembly. Nep. Cum Antiochō, with Antiochus. Cic. Dē forō, from the forum. Cic. Ex Asiā, out of Asia. Nep. Sine corde, without a heart. Cic.

Note 1.—Many verbs compounded with ab, $d\bar{e}$, ex, or super admit the Ablative dependent upon the preposition, but the preposition is often repeated,⁵ or some other preposition of kindred meaning is used:

Abīre magistrātū, to retire from office. Tac. Pūgnā excēdunt, they retire from the battle. Caes. Dē vītā dēcēdere, to depart from life. Cic. Dēcēdere ex Asiā, to depart out of Asia. Cic.

Note $2.-\bar{A}$ and \bar{e} are used only before consonants, ab and ex before either vowels cr consonants. Abs is antiquated, except before $t\bar{e}$.

Note 3.—For *cum* appended to the Ablative of a personal pronoun or of a relative, see 184, 6, and 187, 2.

Note 4.—Tenus follows its case. In its origin it is the Accusative of a noun, 6 and as such it often takes the Genitive:

Collo tenus, up to the neck. Ov. Lumborum tenus, as far as the loins, Cic.

¹ Properly the neuter of secundus, 'following,' second'; but secundus is a gerundive from sequor, formed like discundus from disco (239). For the change of qu to c before u in sec-undus for sequ-undus, see 26, foot-note.

² Like the adjective secundus in ventus secundus, 'a favoring wind'—one that follows us on our course; flumine secundo, 'with a favoring current' (i. e., down the stream).

³ Suprā = superā parte, 'on the top.'

⁴ Literally, before this memory. For hic meaning my or our, see 450, 4, note 1.

⁶ Though in such cases the first element of the compound is not strictly a preposition, but an adverb (344, with foot-note). Thus, in $d\tilde{e}$ $v\tilde{t}t\tilde{a}$ $d\tilde{e}c\tilde{e}dere$, $d\tilde{e}$ in the verb retains its adverbial force, so that, strictly speaking, the preposition is used only once.

⁶ From the root tan, ten, seen in ten-dō, ten-eō, and in the Greek τειν-ω.

Note 5.—For the Ablative with or without $d\bar{e}$, as used with $faci\bar{o}$, $f\bar{i}\bar{o}$, and sum, see 415, III., note.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Ablative deserve notice:

Ā, ab, ¹ abs, from, by, in, on, on the side of. 1. Of Place; from, on, on the side of: ā Galliā, 'from Gaul'; ab ortū, 'from the east'; ā fronte, 'in front' (lit., from the front); ā tergō, 'in the rear'; ab Sēquanīs, 'on the side toward the Sequani.' 2. Of Time; from, after: ab hōrā tertiā, 'from the third hour'; ā puerō, 'from boyhood'; ab cohortātiōne, 'after exhorting.' 3. In other relations; from, by, in, against: ā poenā līber, 'free from punishment'; missus ab Syrācūsīs, 'sent by the Syracusans'; ab equitātū firmus, 'strong in (lit., from) cavalry'; ab animō aeger, 'diseased in mind'; ab eīs dēfendere, 'to defend against (from) them'; esse ab aliquō, 'to be on one's side'; ā nōbīr, 'in our interest'; servus ā pedibus, 'a footman.'

Note.—Absque, rare in classical prose, is found chiefly in Plautus and Terence.

Cum, with, in most of its English meanings: cum patre habitāre, 'to live with one's father'; Caesar cum quīnque legionibus, 'Caesar with five legions'; cōnsul cum summō imperiō, 'the consul with supreme command'; servus cum tēlō, 'a slave with a weapon,' 'an armed slave'; cum prīmā lūce, 'with the early dawn,' at the early dawn'; zōnsentīre cum aliquō, 'to agree with any one'; cum Caesare agere, 'to treat with Caesar'; cum aliquō dīmicāre, 'to contend with any one'; multīs cum lacrimīs, 'with many tears'; cum virtūte, 'virtuously'; cum eō ut, or cum eō quod, 'with this condition that,' 'on condition that.' See also 419, III.

Dē, down from, from, of. 1. Of Place; down from, from: dē caelō, 'down from heaven'; dē forō, 'from the forum'; dē mājōribus audīre, 'to hear from one's elders.' 2. Of Time; from, out of, during, in, at, after: dē prandiō, 'from breakfast'; dē diē, 'by day,' 'in the course of the day'; dē tertiā vigiliā, 'during the third watch'; dē mediā nocte, 'at about midnight.' 3. In other relations; from, of, for, on, concerning, according to: dē summō genere, 'of the highest rank'; factum dē marmore sīgnum, 'a bust made of marble'; homō dē plēbē, 'a man of plebeian rank,' 'a plebeian'; triumphus dē Galliā, 'a triumph over (concerning) Gaul'; gravī dē causā, 'for a grave reason'; dē mōre vetustō, 'according to ancient custom'; dē industriā, 'on purpose'; dē integrō, 'anew.' See also 415, III., note 2.

E, ex,3 out of, from. 1. Of Place; out of, from, in, on: ex urbe, 'from the city,' 'out of the city'; ex equō pūgnāre, 'to fight on horseback'; ex vinculīs, 'in chains' (lit., out of or from chains); ex itinere, 'on the march.' 2. Of Time; from, directly after, since: ex eō tempore, 'from that time'; ex tempore dīcere, 'to speak extemporaneously'; diem ex diē, 'from day to day.' 3. In other relations; from, out of, of, according to, on account of, through: ex vulneribus perīre, 'to perish of (because of) wounds'; ūnus ē fīlis, 'one of the sons'; ex commūtātiōne, 'on account of the change'; ex cōnsuētūdine, 'according to custom'; ē vestīgiō, 'on the spot'; ex parte māgnā, 'in great part'; ex imprōvīsō, 'unexpectedly.'

¹ Greck ἀπό. 2 Compare Greek ξύν, σύν, with. 3 Compare Greek ἐξ, out of

Prae, BEFORE, IN COMPARISON WITH, IN CONSEQUENCE OF, BECAUSE OF: 1 prae manū esse, 'to be at hand'; prae manū habēre, 'to have at hand'; prae sē ferre, 'to show, display, exhibit'; prae nōbīs beātus, 'happy in comparison with us'; nōn prae lacrimīs 1 posse, 'not to be able because of tears.'

Prō, BEFORE; IN BEHALF OF, IN DEFENCE OF, FOR; INSTEAD OF, AS; IN RETURN FOR, FOR; ACCORDING TO, IN PROPORTION TO: prō castrīs, 'before the camp'; prō lībertāte, 'in defence of liberty'; prō patriā, 'for the country'; prō cōnsule = prōcōnsul, 'a proconsul' (one acting for a consul); prō certō habēre, 'to regard as certain'; prō cō, quod, 'for the reason that,' 'because'; prō tuā prūdentīā, 'in accordance with your prudence'; prō imperiō, 'imperiously'; prō sē quisque, 'each according to his ability.'

435. The Accusative or Ablative is used with-

In, sub, subter, super:

In Asiam profugit, he fled into Asia. Cic. Hannibal in Ĭtaliā fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep. Sub montem, toward the mountain. Caes. Sub monte, at the foot of the mountain. Liv. Subter togam, under the toga. Liv. Subter testūdine, under a tortoise or shed. Verg. Super Numidiam, beyond Numidia. Sall. Hāc super rē scrībam, I shall write on this subject. Cic.

Note 1.—In and sub take the Accusative after verbs implying motion, the Ablative after those implying rest; see examples.

Note 2.—Subter and super generally take the Accusative; but super, when it means concerning, of, on (of a subject of discourse), takes the Ablative; see examples.

I. The following uses of in, sub, subter, and super deserve notice:

In, with the Accusative, INTO, TO, TOWARD, TILL. 1. Of Place; ENTO, TO, TOWARD, AGAINST, IN: $\bar{\imath}re$ in urben, 'to go into the city'; in Persās, 'into the country of the Persians'; in āram, 'to the altar'; $\bar{\imath}num$ in locum convenīre, 'to meet in one place' (380, with note). 2. Of Time; INTO, TO, FOR, TILL: in noctem, 'into the night'; in multam noctem, 'until late at night'; in dien, 'into the day,' also 'for the day'; in dies, 'from day to day,' 'daily'; invītāre in posterum diem, 'to invite for the following day.' 3. In other relations; INTO, AGAINST, TOWARD, ON, FOR, AS, IN: dīvīša in partēs trēs, 'divided into three parts'; in hostem, 'against the enemy'; in id certāmen, 'for this contest'; in memoryam patris, 'in memory of his father'; in spem pācis, 'in the hope of peace'; in rem esse, 'to be useful,' 'to be to the purpose.'

In, with the Ablative, IN, ON, AT. 1. Of Place; IN, AT, WITHIN, AMONG, UPON: in urbe, 'in the city'; in Persis, 'among the Persians'; sapientissimus in septem, 'the wisest among or of the seven.' 2. Of Time; IN, AT, DURING, IN THE COURSE OF: in tālī tempore, 'at such a time'; in tempore, 'in time.' 3. In other relations; IN, ON, UPON, IN THE CASE OF: esse in armīs, 'to be in arms'; in summō timōre, 'in the greatest fear'; in hōc homine, 'in the case of this man.'

Sub, with the Accusative, under, beneath, toward, up to, about, direct-

¹ This causal meaning is developed from the local. The noun in the Ablative is thought of as an obstacle or hindrance: non prae lacrimis posse, 'not to be able before, in the presence of, because of such a hindrance as tears.'

LY AFTER: $su\bar{b}$ jugum mittere, 'to send under the yoke'; $su\bar{b}$ nostram aciem, 'toward our line'; $su\bar{b}$ astra, 'up to the stars'; $su\bar{b}$ vesperum, 'toward evening'; $su\bar{b}$ eās litterās, 'directly after that letter'; $su\bar{b}$ imperium redāctus, 'brought under one's sway.'

Sub, with the Ablative, UNDER, AT, AT THE FOOT OF, IN, ABOUT: sub terrā, 'under the earth'; sub pellibus, 'in tents'; 'sub brūmā, 'at the time of the winter solstice'; sub lūce, 'at dawn'; sub hōc verbō, 'under this word'; sub rūdice, 'in the hands of the judge' (i. e., not yet decided).

Note.—Subter, a strengthened form 2 of sub, meaning under, generally takes the Accusative, though it admits the Ablative in poetry: subter mare, 'under the sea'; subter togam, 'under the toga'; subter densa iestūdine, 'under a compact testudo.'

Super, with the Accusative, OVER, UPON, ABOVE: sedens super arma, 'sitting upon the arms'; super Numidiam, 'beyond Numidia'; super sexāgintā mīlia, 'upward of sixty thousand'; super nātūram, 'supernatural'; super omnia, 'above all.'

Super, with the Ablative, upon, at, during, concerning, of, on: strātō super ostrō, 'upon purple couches' (lit., upon the spread purple); nocte super mediā, 'at midnight'; hāc super rē scrībere, 'to write upon this subject'; multa super Priamō rogitāns, 'asking many questions about Priam.'

Note.—The Ablative is rare with super, except when it means concerning, about, on (of the subject of discourse). It is then the regular construction.

436. Prepositions were originally adverbs (307, note 1), and many of the words generally classed as prepositions are often used as adverbs ³ in classical authors:

Ad mīlibus quattuor, about four thousand. Caes. Omnia contrā circāque, all things opposite and around. Liv. Prope ā Siciliā, not far from Sicily. Cic. Juxtā positus, placed near by. Nep. Suprā, īnfrā esse, to be above, below. Cic. Nec citrā nec ūltrā, neither on this side nor on that side. Ov.

- 437. Conversely, several words generally classed as adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions. Such are—
- 1. With the Accusative, propius, prōximē, vrīdiē, postrīdiē, usque, dēsuper:

Propius periculum, nearer to danger. Liv. Prīdiē Īdūs, the day before the Ides. Cic. Usque pedēs, even to the feet. Curt.

2. With the Ablative, intus, palam, procul, simul (poetic):

Tall intus templo, within such a temple. Verg. Palam populo, in the presence of the people. Liv. Procul castris, at a distance from the camp. Tac. Simul his, with these. Hor.

3. With the Accusative or Ablative, clam, insuper:

Clam patrem, without the father's knowledge. Plaut. Clam vobis, without your knowledge. Caes.

¹ That is, in camp (lit., under skins).

² Formed from sub, like in-ter from in; see 433, I., inter, foot-note.

³ They are, in fact, sometimes adverbs and sometimes prepositions.

CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE XXXIV.-Agreement of Adjectives.

438. An adjective agrees with its noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE:

Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cic. Vērae amīcitiae, true friendships. Cic. Magister optimus, the best teacher. Cic. Quā in rē prīvātās injūriās ultus est, in which thing he avenged private wrongs. Caes. Sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic.

- 1. Adjective Pronouns and Participles are Adjectives in construction, and accordingly conform to this rule, as in quā in rē, sōl oriēns.
- 2. When an adjective unites with the verb (generally sum) to form the predicate, as in caeca est, 'is blind,' it is called a Predicate Adjective (360, note 1); but when it simply qualifies a noun, as in verae amecitiae, 'true friendships,' it is called an Attributive Adjective.
- 3. AGREEMENT WITH CLAUSE, ETC.—An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc.:

Quis clărior, who is more illustrious? Cic. Certum est liberos amārī, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. See 42, note.

Note.—An adjective agreeing with a clause is sometimes plural, as in Greek:

Ut Aenēās jactētur nota tibī, how Aeneas is tossed about is known to you. Verg.

4. A NEUTER ADJECTIVE used as a *substantive* sometimes supplies the place of a Predicate Adjective: 1

Mors est extremum, death is the last thing. Cic. Triste lupus stabulis, a wolf is a sad thing for the flocks. Verg.

5. A NEUTER ADJECTIVE WITH A GENITIVE is often used instead of an adjective with its noun, especially in the Nominative and Accusative:

Multum operae, much service. Cic. Id temporis, that time. Cic. Vana rerum, vain t'iings. Hor. Opaca viārum, dark streets. Verg. Strata viārum, paved streets. Verg. See also 397, 3, note 4.

6. Synesis. 3—Sometimes the adjective or participle conforms to the *real* meaning of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certare parati, a part (some), prepared to contend. Verg. Insperanti anobis, to us (me) not expecting it. Catul. Demosthenes cum ceteris erant expulsi, Demosthenes with the others had been banished. Nep.

¹ As in Greek: οὐκ ἀγαθὸν πολυκοιρανίη, the rule of the many is not a good thing.

² Multum operae = multa opera or multam operam; id temporis = id tempus; vāna rērum = vānae rēs or vānās rēs.

³ A construction according to sense; see 636, IV., 4.

⁴ Parātī is plural, to conform to the meaning of pars, 'part,' 'some,' plural in sense;

Note.—In the Ablative Absolute (431) absente and praesente occur in early Latin with a plural noun or pronoun; 1

Praesente Thus (ets.), in their presence (lit., they being present). Plant. Praesente testibus, in the presence of witnesses. Plant.

7. AGREEMENT WITH ONE NOUN FOR ANOTHER.—When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns, sometimes agrees with the other:

Mājōra (for mājōrum) rērum initia, the beginnings of greater things. Liv. Cursus jūstī (jūstus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

NOTE 1.—In the passive forms of verbs the participle sometimes agrees with a predicate noun or with an appositive; see 462.

Note 2.—An adjective or participle predicated of an Accusative is sometimes attracted into the Nominative to agree with the subject:

Ostendit sē dextra (for dextram), she shows herself favorable. Verg.

439. An adjective or participle, belonging to Two or MORE NOUNS, may agree with them all *conjointly*, or may agree with *one* and be understood with the others:

Castor et Pollüx vīsī sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen. Cic. Dubitāre vīsus est Sulpicius et Cotta, Sulpicius and Cotta seemed to doubt. Cic. Temeritās īgnōrātiŏque vitiōsa est, rashness and ignorance are bad. Cic.

1. The Attributive Adjective generally agrees with the nearest noun:

Agrī omnēs et maria, all lands and seas. Cic. Cuneta maria terraeque, all seas and lands. Sall.

2. A plural adjective or participle, agreeing with two or more nouns of DIFFERENT GENDERS, is generally masculine when the nouns denote persons or sentient beings, and in other cases generally neuter:

Pater et mater mortui sunt, father and mother are dead. Ter. Honores, victoriae fortuita sunt, honors and victories are accidental things. Cic. Labor voluptasque inter se sunt juncta, labor and pleasure are joined together. Liv.

Note.—When nouns denoting sentient beings are combined with those denoting things, the plural adjective or participle in agreement with them sometimes takes the gender of the former and sometimes of the latter, and sometimes is neuter irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Rex regiaque classis profecti sunt, the king and the royal fleet set out. Liv. Regem regnumque sua futura sciunt, they know that the king and the kingdom will be theirs. Liv. Inimica 3 inter se sunt libera civitas et rex, a free state and a king are hostile to each other. Liv.

3. With nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective or participle is often neuter, irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Labor et dolor sunt finitima, labor and pain are kindred (things). Cic.

inspēranti is singular, because nobis is here applied to one person, the speaker (446, note 2); expulsi is plural, because Dēmosthenes cum cēteris means Demosthenes and the others.

¹ In this construction absente and praesente appear to be treated as adverbs.

² See p. 73, foot-note 2.

³ Perhaps best explained substantively—things hostile; see 438, 4.

Nox atque praeda hostīs remorāta sunt, night and plunder detained the enemy.

4. Two or more adjectives in the singular may belong to a plural noun: Prima et vicesima legiones, the first and the twentieth legions. Tac.

Note.—In the same way two or more $praen\bar{o}mina^{+}$ in the singular may be combined with a family name in the plural:

Gnaeus et Pūblius Scīpiones, Gnaeus and Publius Scipio. Cic. Pūblius et Servius Sullae, Publius and Servius Sulla. Sall.

Use of Adjectives.

- 440. The adjective in Latin corresponds in its general use to the adjective in English.
- 1. In Latin, as in English, an adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun and another adjective:

Duae potentissimae gentēs, two very powerful races. Liv. Māgnum aes aliēnum, a large debt. Cic. Nāvēs longās trīgintā veterēs, thirty old vessels of war. Liv.²

Note.—In general no connective is used when adjectives are combined, as in *duae* potentissimae gentēs, etc.; but if the first adjective is multī or plūrimī, the connective is usually inserted;

Multae et māgnae cōgitātiōnēs, many great thoughts. Cic. Multa et praeclāra facinora, many illustrious deeds. Sall.

2. Prolepsis or Anticipation.—An adjective is sometimes applied to a noun to denote the *result* of the action expressed by the verb:

Submersas 3 obrue puppes, overwhelm and sink the ships (lit., overwhelm the sunken ships). Verg. Scuta latentia 2 conduct, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg.

Note 1.—Certain adjectives often designate a particular part of an object: prīma now, the first part of the night; mediā aestāte, in the middle of summer; summus mōns, the top (highest part) of the mountain.

Note 2.—The adjectives thus used are prīmus, medius, ūltimus, extrēmus, postrēmus, intimus, summus, īnfimus, imus, suprēmus, rěliquus, cētera, etc.

NOTE 3.—In the poets, in Livy, and in late prose writers, the neuter of these adjectives with a Genitive sometimes occurs:

Libyae extrêma, the frontiers of Libya. Verg. Ad ültimum inopiae (for ad ültimam inopiam), to extreme destitution. Liv.

NOTE 4.—Adjectives are often combined with RES: res adversae, adversity; res secundae, prosperity; res novae, revolution; res publica, republic.

¹ For Roman names, see 649.

² Here duae qualifies not simply gentēs, but potentissimae gentēs; māgnum qualifies aes aliēnum, 'debt' (lit., money belonging to another); veterēs qualifies nāvēs longās, 'vessels of war' (lit., 'long vessels'), while trēgintā qualifies the still more complex expression, nāvēs longās veterēs.

³ Observe that submersüs gives the result of the action denoted by obrue, and is not applicable to puppës until that action is performed; latentia likewise gives the result of condunt.

441. Adjectives and participles are often used Substantively:1

Bonī, the good; mortālēs, mortals; doctī, the learned; sapientēs, the wise; multī, many persons; multa, many things; praefectus, a prefect; nātus, a son.

- 1. In the plural, masculine adjectives and participles often designate PERSONS, and neuter adjectives THINGS: fortes, the brave: divit s, the rich; pauperes, the poor; multi, many; pauci, few; omnes, all; mei, my friends; discent s, learners; spectant s, spectators; futiva, future events; ūtilia, useful things; mea nostra, my things, our things; omnia, all things; haec, illa, these things, those things.
- 2. In the singular, adjectives and participles are occasionally used SUBSTANTIVELY, especially in the Genitive, or in the Accusative or Ablative with a preposition: doctus, a learned man; adulèscèns, a young man; vērum, a true thing, the truth; falsum, a falsehood; nihil sincērī, nothing of sincerity, nothing sincere; nihil humānī, nothing human; nihil rěliquī, nothing left; aliquid novī, something new; ā prīmō, from the beginning; ad extrēmum, to the end; ad summum, to the highest point; dē integrō, afresh; dē imprôvīsō, unexpectedly; ex aequō, in like manner; in praesentī, at presentī; in futūrum. for the future; prō certō, as certain.

Note 1 .- For the neuter participle with opus and usus, see 414, IV., note 3.

- Note 2.—For the use of adjectives instead of nouns in the Genitive, see 395, note 2.
- 3. A few substantives are sometimes used as adjectives, especially verbal nouns in tor and trīx: 5 vīctor exercitus, a victorious army; homŏ gladiātor, a gladiator, a gladiatorial man; vīctrīcēs Athēnae, victorious (conquering) Athens; populus lātē rēx, a people of extensive sway.
- 442. Equivalent to a Clause.—Adjectives, like nouns in apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Nēmŏ saltat sobrius, no one dances when he is sober, or when sober. Cic. Hortēnsium vīvum amāvī, I loved Hortensius, while he was alive. Cic. Homŏ nūnquam sobrius, a man who is never sober. Cic.

Note.—Prior, prīmus, ültimus, postrēmus, are often best rendered by a relative clause: Prīmus mõrem solvit, he was the first who broke the custom. Liv.

443. Adjectives and Adverbs.—Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom employs adverbs:

Socrates venenum laetus hausit, Socrates cheerfully drank the poison. Sen. Senātus frequens convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers. Cic. Roscius erat Romae frequens, Roscius was frequently at Rome. Cic.

¹ That is, words which were originally adjectives or participles sometimes become *substantives*; indeed, many substantives were originally adjectives; see 323, foot-note; 324, foot-note.

² Praefectus, from praeficio (lit., one appointed over); natus, from nascor (lit., one born).

³ See 397, 1. For nihil reliqui facere, see 401, note 4.

⁴ Numerous adverbial expressions are thus formed by combining the neuter of adjectives with prepositions.

⁵ That is, these words are generally substantives, but sometimes adjectives.

⁶ See Verg., Aen., I., 21.

With the adverb primum the thought would be, he first broke the custom (i. e., before doing anything else). Compare the corresponding distinction between the Greek adjective πρώτος and the adverb πρώτον.

Note 1.—The adjectives chiefly thus used are—(1) Those expressive of joy, knowledge, and their opposites: lactus, libens, invitus, trīstis, sciens, īnsciens, prūdēns, imprūdēns, etc. (2) Nūllus, solus, totus, ūnus; prior, prīmus, propior, prēximus, etc.

NOTE 2.—In the poets a few adjectives of time and place are used in the same manner:

Domesticus ötior, I idle about home. Hor. Vespertinus pete tectum, at evening
seek vour abode. Hor.

NOTE 8.—In rare instances adverbs seem to supply the place of adjectives:

Omnia rêctê sunt, all things are right. Cic. Non ignarî sumus ante malorum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg. Nunc hominum mores, the character of men of the present day. Plant.

Note 4.—Numeral adverbs often occur with titles of office: 2

Flaminius, consul iterum, Flaminius, when consul for the second time. Cic.

444. A comparison between two objects requires the comparative degree; between more than two, the superlative:

Prior horum, the former of these (two). Nep. Gallorum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes.

1. The comparative sometimes has the force of TCO, UNUSUALLY, SOME-WHAT, and the superlative, the force of VERY: doctior, too learned, or somewhat learned; doctissimus, very learned.

Note.—Certain superlatives are common as titles of honor: clārissimus, nōbilissimus, and summus—especially applicable to men of consular or senatorial rank; fortissimus, honestissimus, illustrissimus, and splendidissimus—especially applicable to those of the equestrian order.

2. Comparative after Quan.—When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, the two adjectives thus used either may be connected by magis quan 3 or may both be put in the comparative: 4

Disertus magis quam sapiëns, more fluent than wise. Cic. Praeclūrum magis quam difficile, more noble than difficult, or noble rather than difficult. Cic. Dītiōres quam fortiōrēs, more wealthy than brave. Liv. Clārior quam grātior, more illustrious than pleasing. Liv.

Note 1.—In a similar manner two adverbs may be connected by magis quam, or may both be put in the comparative:

Magis audäcter quam parätë, with more audacity than preparation. Cic. Bellum fortius quam felicius gerere, to wage war with more valor than success. Liv.

Note 2.—The form with magis, both in adjectives and in adverbs, may sometimes be best rendered $rather\ than$:

Ars magis magna quam difficilis, an art extensive rather than difficult. Cic. See also the second example under 2, above.

NOTE 3.—In the later Latin the *positive* sometimes follows *quam*, even when the regular *comparative* precedes, and sometimes *two positives* are used:

Vehementius quam cauté appetere, to seek more eagerly than cautiously. Tac. Cläris quam vetustis, illustrious rather than ancient. Tac.

Note 4.—For the use of comparatives before quam pro, see 417, 1, note 5.

Like the Greek τῶν πρίν κακῶν and τῶν νῦν ἀνθρώπων.

² The want of a present participle in the verb sum brings these adverbs into close connection with nouns.

³ As in English, more fluent than wise. This is the usual method in Cicero.

⁴ As in Greek, πλείονες η βελτίονες, more numerous than good. This method, common in Livy, is rare in the earlier writers.

3. Strengthening Words.—Comparatives and superlatives are often strengthened by a preposition with its case, as by ante, prae, praeter, suprā (417, 1, note 3). Comparatives are also often strengthened by etiam, even, still; multō, much; and superlatives by longē, multō, by far, much; vel, even; unus, unus omnium, alone, alone of all, without exception, far, by far; quam, quam or quantus with the verb possum, as possible; tam quam quī, ut quī, as possible (lit., as he who):

Mājōrēs etiam varietātēs, even greater varieties. Cic. Multō etiam gravius quertur, he complains even much more bitterly. Caes. Multō māxima pars, by far the largest part. Cic. Quam saepissinē, as oʻten as possible. Cic. Ūnus omnium doctissimus, without exception the most learned of men. Cic. Rēs ūna omnium difficillima, a thing by far the most difficult of all. Cic. Quam māximae cōpiae, forces as large as possible. Sall. Quantam māximam potest vastitātem ostendit, he exhibits the greatest possible desolation (lit., as great as the greatest he can). Liv.

CHAPTER IV.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

RULE XXXV.-Agreement of Pronouns.

445. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in GENDER, NUMBER, and PERSON:

Animal quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood. Cic. Ego, $qu\bar{\imath}$ të confirmo, I who encourage you. Cic. Vis est in virtutibus, eas excita, there is strength in virtues, arouse them. Cic.

Note.—The antecedent is the word or words to which the pronoun refers, and whose place it supplies. Thus, in the examples under the rule, animal is the antecedent of quod; ego, of qui; and virtūtibus, of eūs.

- 1. This rule applies to all pronouns when used as nouns. Pronouns used as adjectives conform to the rule for adjectives; see 438.
- 2. When the antecedent is a demonstrative in agreement with a personal pronoun, the relative agrees with the latter:

Tu es is qui mē ōrnāstī, you are the one wно commended me. Сіс.

3. When a relative, or other pronoun, refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest or the most important:

Pietās, virtūs, fidēs, quārum 1 Romae templa sunt, piety, virtue, and faith, whose temples are at Rome. Cic. Peccātum āc culpa, quae, 1 error and fault, which. Cic.

¹ Quārum agrees with $piet\bar{u}s$, $virt\bar{u}s$, and $fid\bar{e}s$ conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural; but quae agrees simply with culpa.

NOTE 1.—With antecedents of different genders, the pronoun conforms in gender to the rule for adjectives (439, 2 and 3):

Puerī mulierēsque $qu\bar{\imath}_i^1$ boys and women who. Caes. Inconstantia et temeritäs, $quae^1$ dīgna non sunt deō, inconstancy and rashness which are not worthy of a god. Cic.

NOTE 2.—With antecedents of different persons, the pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third, conforming to the rule for verbs (463, 1):

Ego ac tũ inter $n\delta s^2$ loquimur, you and I converse together. Tac. Et tũ et collègae tai, $qu\lambda^2$ spêrāstis, both you and your colleagues, who hoped. Cic.

4. By Attraction, a pronoun sometimes agrees with a Predicate Noun or an Appositive instead of the antecedent:

Animal quem (for quod) vocâmus hominem, the animal which we call man. Cic. Thèbae, quod (quae) caput est, Thebes, which is the capital. Liv. Ea (id) erat confessio, that (i. e., the action referred to) was a confession. Liv. Flümen Rhūnus, qui, the river Rhūne, which. Caes.

5. By SYNESIS, the pronoun is sometimes construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent, without regard to grammatical form; and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs:

Quia fessum militem habebat, hīs quictem dedit, as he had an exhausted soldiery, he gave them (these) a rest. Liv. Equitatus, qui viderunt, the cavalry who saw. Caes. De alia re, quod ad me attinet, in regard to another thing which pertains to me. Plaut. Earum rerum utrumque, each of these things. Cic. Democritum omittamus; apud istos; let us omit Democritus; with such (i. e., as he). Cic.

6. Antecedent Omitted.—The antecedent of the relative is often omitted when it is indefinite, is a demonstrative pronoun, or is implied in a possessive pronoun, or in an adjective:

Sunt qui conseant, there are some who think. Cic. Terra reddit quod accepit, the earth returns what it has received. Cic. Vestra, qui cum integritate vixistis, hoc interest, this interests you who have lived with integrity. Cic-Servilis tumultus quos, the revolt of the slaves whom. Caes.

7. Clause as Antecedent.—When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun, unless attracted (445, 4), is in the Neuter Singular, but the relative generally adds \underline{id} as an appositive to such antecedent:

Nos, id quod debet, patria delectat, our country delights us, as it ought (lit., that which it owes). Cic. Regem, quod nunquam antea acciderat, necaverunt, they put their king to death, which had never before happened. Cic.

8. Relative Attracted.—The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and sometimes agrees with the antecedent repeated:

Judice quo (for quem) nosti, the judge whom you know. Hor. Dies instat,

Qui agrees with pueri and mulieris conjointly, and is in the masculine, according to 439, 2; but quae is in the neuter, according to 439, 3.

² Nõs, referring to ego ãc tũ, is in the first person; while quũ, referring to tũ et collègae, is in the second person, as is shown by the verb sperästis.

³ In these examples, the pronouns quem, quod, and ea are attracted, to agree with their predicate nouns, hominem, caput, and confessio; but qui agrees with the appositive, Rhēnus.

quō diē, the day is at hand, on which day. Caes. Cūmae, quam urbem ienēbant, Cumae, which city they held. Liv.

9. Antecedent Attracted.—In poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative; and sometimes incorporated in the relative clause with the relative in agreement with it:

Urbem, quam statuō, vestra est, the city which I am building is yours. Verg.¹ Malārum, quās amor cūrās habet, oblīvīscī (for malārum cūrārum quās), to forget the wretched cares which love has. Hor.¹ Quōs vōs implorāre dēbētis, ut, quam urbem pulcherrimam esse voluērunt, hanc² dēfendant, these (lit., whom) you ought to implore to defend this city, which they wished to be most beautiful. Cic.

Use of Pronouns.

446. Personal Pronouns.—The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast: 3

Sīgnificāmus quid sentiāmus, we show what we think. Cic. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, vēs tyrannos introducitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

Note 1 .- With quidem the pronoun is usually expressed, but not with equidem:

Facis amīcē tū quidem, you act indeed in a friendly manner. Cic. Non dubitābam equidem, I did not doubt indeed. Cic.

NOTE 2.—A writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using nos for ego, noster for meus, and the plural verb for the singular;

Vides nos (for me) multa conari, you see that we (for I) are attempting many things. Cic. Sermo explicabit nostram (for meam) sententiam, the conversation will unfold our (mr) opinion. Cic. Diximus (for dīxī) multa, I have said many things. Cic. 4

Note 3.— $Nostr\bar{\imath}$ and $vestr\bar{\imath}$ are generally used in an objective sense; $nostr\bar{\imath}m$ and $vestr\bar{\imath}m$ in a partitive sense:

Habetis ducem memorem vestrī, you have a leader mindful of your interests (of you). Cic. Minus habeð vīrium quam vestrūm utervīs, I have less strength than either of you. Cic. Quis nostrūm, who of us? Cic.

Note 4.—With ab, ad, or apud, a personal pronoun may designate the residence or abode of a person:

Ā nōbīs ĕgreditur, he is coming from our house. Ter. Vēni ad mē, I came to my house. Cic. Eāmus ad mē, let us go to my house. Ter. Apud tē est, he is at your house. Cic. Rūrī apud sē est, he is at his residence in the country. Cic. See also 433, I., ad, apud, etc.

447. Possessive Pronouns, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed, if they can be supplied from the context:

Manus lavā, wash your hands. Cic. Mihi mea vīta cāra est, my life is dear to me. 5 Plaut.

¹ For other examples, see Verg., Aen., V., 28-30; Hor., Sat., I., 10, 16.

² Quam urbem, hanc = hanc urbem, quam.

³ The learner will remember that a pronominal subject is actually contained in the ending of the verb; see 368, 2, foot-note.

⁴ For other examples, see Hor., Sat., I., 9, 7, and Car., I., 32.

⁵ In this example mea is expressed for emphasis.

Note 1.—Possessive Pronouns sometimes mean favorable, propitious, as alienus often means unfavorable:

Tempore tuō pūgnāstī, you fought at a favorable time. Liv. Ferunt sua flāmina clāssem, favorable winds bear the fleet. Verg. Aliēnō locō proelium committunt, they engage in battle in an unfavorable place. Caes.

Note 2.—For the Possessive Pronoun in combination with a Genitive, see 398, 3. For certain other uses of Possessives, see 396, II., N.; III., N. 2.

448. Reflexive Use of Pronouns.—Suī and suus have a reflexive sense; sometimes also the other personal and possessive pronouns:

Mīles sē ipsum interfēcit, the soldier killed himself. Tac. Tēlō sē dēfendit, he defends himself with a weapon. Cic. Suā vī movētur, he is moved by his own power. Cic. Mē cōnsōlor, I console myself. Cic. Vōs vestra tēcta dēfendite, defend your houses. Cic.

Note.—Inter nos, inter ros, inter se, have a reciprocal force, each other, one another, together; but instead of inter se, the noun may be repeated in an oblique case:

Colloquimur inter nos, we converse together. Cic. Amant inter se, they love one another. Cic. Homines hominibus utiles sunt, men are useful to men (i. e., to each other). Cic.

449. Sut and suus generally refer to the Subject of the clause in which they stand:

Se diligit, he loves himself. Cic. Justitia propter sese colenda est, justice should be cultivated for its own sake. Cic. Annulum suum dedit, he gave his ring. Nep. Per se sibi quisque carus est, every one is in his very nature (through or in himself) dear to himself. Cic.

1. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the sentiment of the principal subject, sui and suus generally refer to that subject:

Sentit animus se vi sua moveri, the mind perceives that it is mored by its own power. Cic. A me petivit ut secum essem, he asked (from) me to be with him (that I would be). Cic. Pervestigat quid sui cives cogitent, he tries to ascertain what his fellow-citizens think. Cic.

1) As su\(\tilde{u}\) and suus thus refer to subjects, the demonstratives, is, ille, etc., generally refer either to other words, or to subjects which do not admit su\(\tilde{u}\) and suus:

Deum āgnōscis ex ējus operibus, you recognize a god by (from) his works. Cic. Obligat cīvitātem nihil eos mūtātūros, he binds the state not to change anything (that they will). Just.

2) In some subordinate clauses the writer may at pleasure use either the reflexive or the demonstrative, according as he wishes to present the thought as that of the principal subject, or as his own:

Persuadent Tulingis uti cum iis 2 proficiscantur, they persuade the Tulingi to depart with them. Caes.

3) Sometimes reflexives and demonstratives are used without any apparent distinction:

¹ Suī, of himself; sibž, for himself; sē, himself.

³ Here cum its is the proper language for the writer without reference to the sentiment of the principal subject; secum, which would be equally proper, would present the thought as the sentiment of that subject.

Caesar Fabium cum legione suā ¹ remittit, Caesar sends back Fabius and (with) his legion. Caes. Omitto Īsocratem discipulosque ējus, ¹ I omit Isocrates and his disciples. Cic.

2. Suus, in the sense of His own, Fitting, etc., may refer to subject or object:

Jūstitia suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic.

3. SYNESIS.—When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, suī and suus refer to the agent:

 $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ Caesare invîtor sibî ut sim lēgātus, I am invited by Caesar (real agent) to be his lieutenant. Cic.

4. The Plural of Suus, meaning His Friends, Their Friends, Their Possessions, etc., is used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Fuit hoc luctuosum suis, this was afflicting to his friends.2 Cic.

5. Sui and Suus sometimes refer to an omitted subject:

Deforme est de se praedicare, to boast of one's self is disgusting. Cic.

6. Two Reflexives.—Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the principal subject, and another referring to the subordinate subject:

Respondit nëminem sëcum sine sua pernicië contendisse, he replied that no one had contended with him without (his) destruction. Caes.

450. Demonstrative Pronouns.—Hic, iste, ille, are often called respectively demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons, as hic designates that which is near the speaker; iste, that which is near the person addressed; and ille, that which is remote from both:

Cūstōs hūjus urbis, the guardian of this city (i. e., of our city). Cic. Mūtā istam mentem, change that purpose of yours. Cic. Ista quae sunt ā tē dicta, those things which were spoken by you. Cic. Sī illōs, quōs vidēre non possumus, neglegis, if you disregard those (far away, yonder) whom we can not see. Cic.

1. Hic designates an object conceived as near, and ille as remote, whether in space, time, or thought:

Non antiquo illo more, sed hoc nostro fuit eruditus, he was educated, not in that ancient, but in this our modern way. Cic. Hee illud fuit, was it (that) this? Verg.

Note.—The idea of contempt often implied in clauses with iste is not strictly contained in the pronoun itself, but derived from the context: 4

Animī est ista mollities, non virtus, that is an effeminate spirit, not valor. Caes.

Observe that the reflexive is used in the first example, and the demonstrative in the second, though the cases are entirely alike.

² Here suis refers to an oblique case in the preceding sentence.

³ Here se refers to the subject of respondit, and sua to neminem, the subject of the subordinate clause.

⁴ The idea of *contempt* is readily explained by the fact that *iste* is often applied to the views of an opponent, to a defendant before a court of justice, and the like.

2. Former and Latter.—In reference to two objects previously mentioned, (1) hie generally follows <u>ille</u> and refers to the *latter* object, while *ille* refers to the *former*; but (2) hie may precede and may refer to the *former*, and *ille* refer to the *latter*:

Inimīcī, amīcī; illī, hī, enemies, friends; the former, the latter. Cic. Certa pāx, spērāta vīctōria; hacc ($p\bar{a}x$) in tuā, illa in deōrum potestāte est, sure peace, hoped-for victory; the former is in your power, the latter in the power of the gods. Liv.

Note.— $H\bar{i}c$ refers to the *former* object, when that object is conceived of as *nearer* in thought, either because of its importance, or because of its *close* connection with the subject under discussion.¹

3. Hie and ille are often used of what immediately follows in discourse:

His verbis epistulam misit, he sent a letter in these words (i. e., in the following words). Nep. Illud intellegő, omnium öra in mê conversa esse, the I understand, that the eyes of all are turned upon me. Sall.

4. Ille is often used of what is WELL KNOWN, FAMOUS:

Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea. Cic. Ego, ille ferōx, tacuī, I, that haughty one, was silent. Ovid.

Note 1.— $H\/ic$ is sometimes equivalent to meus or noster, rarely to ego, and $h\/ic$ hom $\/ic$ to ego:

Suprā hanc memoriam, before our time (lit., before this memory). Cic. His meis litteris, with this letter of mine (from me). Cic. His homost omnium hominum, etc., of all men I am, etc. (lit., this man is). Plaut.

Note 2.—Hic, ille, and is are sometimes redundant, especially with quidem:

Scīpiō non multum ille dicēbat, Scipio did not indeed say much. Cic. Graecī volunt illī quidem, the Greeks indeed desire it. Cic. Ista tranquillitās ea ipsa est beāta vita, that tranquillity is itself a happy life. 2 Cic.

Note 3.—A demonstrative or relative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive, or to a preposition with its case: $\hbar ic$ amor = amor $\hbar ijus$ $r \tilde{e} i$, 'the love of this'; $\hbar aec$ e ira e e ira $d \tilde{e}$ $\hbar ie$, 'care concerning this.'

Note 4.—Adverbs derived from demonstrative pronouns share the distinctive meanings of the pronouns themselves:

Hic plus mali est, quam illic boni, there is more of evil here, than of good there. Ter. See also 304; 305.

451. Is and idem refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Dionysius aufügit, is est in provincia, Dionysius has fled, he is in the province. Cic. Is qui satis habet, he who has enough. Cic. Eadem audire malunt, they prefer to hear the same things. Liv.

1. The pronoun is, the weakest of the demonstratives, is often understood, especially before a relative or a Genitive:

Flebat pater de filli morte, de patris fillius, the father wept over the death of the son, the son over (that) of the father. Cic. See also 445, 6.

¹ Thus, in the last example, haec refers to certa pāx as the more prominent object in the mind of the speaker, as he is setting forth the advantages of a sure peace over a hoped-for victory.

² For other examples, see Verg., Aen., I., 3; III., 490; and XI., 809. For the use of personal pronouns with *quidem*, see **446**, note 1.

2. Is, with a conjunction, is often used for emphasis, like the English, and that too and that indeed:

Ünam rem explicābō, eamque māximam, one thing I will explain, and that too a most important one. Cic. Audīre Cratippum, idque Athēnīs, to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens. 1 Cic.

8. Idem is sometimes best rendered also, at the same time, at once, both, yet:

Nihil ütile, quod non idem honestum, nothing useful, which is not also honorable. Cic. Cum dicat, negat idem, though he asserts, he yet denies (the same denies). Cic. Rex Anius, rex idem hominum Phoebique sacerdos, King Anius, both king of men and priest of Apollo. Verg.

4. Is-qui means he-who, such-as, such-that:

II sumus, qui esse debemus, we are such as we ought to be. Cic. Ea est gens quae nesciat, the race is such that it knows not. Liv.

5. Idem—qui means the same—who, the same—as; idem—āc (atque, et, que), idem—ut, idem—cum with the Ablative, the same—as;

Eidem mörës, qui, the same manners which or as. Cic. Est idem ac fuit, he is the same as he was. Ter. Eödem mecum patre genitus, the son of the same father as I (with me). Tac.

6. For the distinction between is and sull in subordinate clauses, see 449, 1, 2).

452. Ipse adds emphasis, generally rendered self:

Ipse Pater fulmina molītur, the Father himself (Jupiter) hurls the thunderbolts. Verg. Ipse ² dīxit, he himself said it. Cic. Ipse Caesar, Caesar himself. Cic. Fac ut tē ipsum cūstōdiās, see that you guard yourself. Cic.

Ipse belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject:

Mē ipse cōnsōlor, I myself (not another) console myself. Cic. Ipse sē quisque dīli-git, every one (himself) loves himself. Cic. Sē ipsum interfēcit, he killed himself. Tac.

Note.—Ipse is sometimes accompanied by &cum, 'with himself,' 'alone,' or by per &c, 'by himself,' 'unaided,' 'in and of himself,' etc.:

Aliud genitor secum ipse volutat, the father (Jupiter) himself alone ponders another plan. Verg. Quod est rectum ipsumque per se laudabile, which is right, and in and of itself praiseworthy. Cic.

2. Ipse is often best rendered by very:

Ipse ille Gorgias, that very Gorgias. Cic.

8. With numerals, ipse means just so many, just; so also in nunc ipsum, 'just at this time'; tum ipsum, 'just at that time':

Trīgintā dies ipsī, just thirty days. Cic. Nunc ipsum sine tē esse non possum, just at this time I cannot be without you. Cic.

4. Ipse in the Genitive with possessives has the force of ourn, one's own:

Nostra ipsörum amīcitia, our own friendship. Cic. See 398, 3.

5. Ipse in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the principal subject, like an emphatic $su\bar{s}$ or suus:

Lēgātōs mīsit quī ipsī vītam peterent, he sent messengers to ask life for himself. Sall.

6. Et ipse and ipse quoque may often be rendered also, likewise, even he:3

Alius Achilles natus et ipse dea, another Achilles likewise (lit., himself also) born of a goddess. Verg.

¹ Id, thus used, often refers to a clause, or to the general thought, as in this example.

² Applied to Pythagoras by his disciples. *Ipse* is often thus used of a superior, as of a master, teacher, etc.

³ Compare the Greek καὶ αὐτός.

- 7. For the use of the Nominative ipse in connection with the Ablative Absolute, see 431, note 3.
- 453. Relative Pronouns.—The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun; sometimes even at the beginning of a sentence:

Res loquitur ipsa, quae semper valet, the fact itself speaks, and this (which) ever has weight. Cic. Qui proclium committunt, they engage in battle. Caes. Quae cum its sint, since these things are so. Cic.

1. Relatives and Demonstratives are often correlatives to each other. $\hbar ie-qui$, isle-qui, etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words, but see is-qui, idem-qui, 451, 4 and 5.

Note.—The neuter quidquid, accompanied by an adjective, a participle, or a Genitive, may be used of persons:

Mâtres et quidquid tecum invalidum est délige, select the motrers and whaterer foeble persons tiere are with you (lit, uhatever there is with you feeble). Verg. Quidquid erat patrum, whatever fathers there were. Liv. See also 397, 3, note 5.

2. In Two Successive Clauses, the *relative* may be—(1) expressed in both, (2) expressed in the first and omitted in the second, (3) expressed in the first and followed by a demonstrative in the second.

Nos qui sermoni non interfuissemus et quibres Cotta sententias tradidisset, we who had not been present at the conversation, and to whom Cotta had reported the opinions. Cie. Dunnorix qui principatum obtinebat ac plebi acceptus erat, Dunnorix, who held the chief authority, and who was acceptable to the common people. Caes. Quae nec haberemus nec his ateremur, which we should neither have nor use. Cie.

Note 1.—Several relatives may appear in successive clauses:

Omnes qui vestitum, qui teeta, qui cultum vitae, qui praesidia contra feras invenerunt, all who introduced (invented) clothing, houses, the refinements of life, protection against wild beasts. Cic.

Note 2.—A relative clause with is is often equivalent to a substantive: ii qui au-diunt = auditores, 'hearers.'

3. Two Relatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Artes quas qui tenent, arts, whose possessors (which who possess). Cic.

4. A Relative Clause is sometimes equivalent to the Ablative with $pr\ddot{o}$:

Spēro, quae tua prūdentia est, tē valēre, I hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.). Cic.

Note.—Quae tua prūdentia est = quā es prūdentiā = prō tuā prūdentiā, means such is your prudence, or you are of such prudence, or in accordance with your prudence, etc.

5. Relative with Adjective.—Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, especially comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative:

Väsa, quae pulcherrima viderat, the most beautiful vessels which he had seen (vessels, which the most beautiful he had seen). Cic. De servis suis, quem habuit fidelissimum, mīsit, he sent the most faithful of the slaves that he had. Nep.

6. The neuter, quod, used as an adverbial Accusative, often stands at the beginning

¹ Of the general or indefinite relative quisquis.

of a sentence or clause, especially before $s\bar{\imath}, n\bar{\imath}, nisi, ets\bar{\imath}$, and sometimes before quia, quoniam, utinam, etc., to indicate a close connection with what precedes. In translating it is sometimes best omitted, and sometimes best rendered by now, in fact, but, and:

Quod sī ceciderint, but if they should fall. Cic. Quod sī ego rescīvissem id prius, now if I had learned this sooner. Ter.

7. Qui dicitur, qui vocătur, or the corresponding active, quem dicunt, quem vocant, are often used in the sense of so-called, the so-called, what they or you call, etc.:

Vestra quae dicitur vita, mors est, your so-called life (lit., your, which is called life) is death. Cic. Lex ista quam vocas non est lex, that law, as you call it, is not a law. Cic.

454. Interrogative Pronouns.—The Interrogative quis is used substantively; $qu\bar{\imath}$, adjectively:

Quis ego sum, who am I? Cic. Quid faciet, what will he do? Cic Qui vir fuit, what kind of a man was he? Cic.

1. Occasionally quis is used adjectively and $qu\bar{\imath}$ substantively:

Quis rex unquam fuit, what king was there ever? Cic. Qui sis, considera, consider who you are. Cic.

Note.—The neuter, quid, is sometimes used of persons; see 397, 3, note 5.

2. Quid, why, how is it that, etc., is often used adverbially (378, 2), or stands apparently unconnected: 2 quid, 'why?' what?' quid enim, 'why then?' 'what then?' 'what indeed?' quid ita, 'why so?' quid quod, 'what of the fact that?' quid sī, 'what if?':

Quid vēnistī, why have you come? Plaut. Quid enim? metusne conturbet, what then? would fear disturb us? Cic. Quid quod delectantur, what of the fact that they are delighted? Cic.

3. Two Interrogatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudavit, who defrauded, and whom did he defraud (lit., who defrauded whom)? Cic.

4. Tantus sometimes accompanies the interrogative pronoun:

Quae fuit unquam in üllö homine tanta constantia, was there ever so great constancy in any man? Cic.

455. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS. 3—Aliquis, quis, qui, and quispiam, are all indefinite—some one, any one:

Est aliquis, there is some one. Liv. Sēnsus aliquis esse potest, there may be some sensation. Cic. Dīxit quis, some one said. Cic. Sī quis rēx, if any king. Cic. Alia rēs quaepiam, any other thing. Cic.

1. Quis and quī are used chiefly after sī, nisi, nē, and num. Aliquis and quis are generally used substantively, aliquī and quī adjectively. Aliquis and aliquī after sī, nisi, etc., are emphatic:

Sī est aliquī sēnsus in morte, if there is any sensation whatever in death. Cic.

2. Nesciŏ quis and nesciŏ quì often supply the place of indefinite pronouns:

¹ Here quod refers to something that precedes, and means in reference to which, in reference to this, in this connection, etc. For other examples, see Caesar, B. G., I., 14, and VII., 88.

² In some instances quid is readily explained by the *ellipsis* of some form of $die\tilde{d}$ or of sum.

³ For a full illustration of the use of indefinite prenouns, see Draeger, I., pp. 87-103.

Nesció quis loquitur, some one speaks (lit., I know not who speaks, or one speaks, I know not who). Plaut. Nesció quid mihi animus praesagit malī, my mind forebodes some evil (191, note). Ter.

456. Quidam, 'a certain one,' is less indefinite than aliquis:

Quidam rhetor antiquus, a certain ancient rhetorician. Cic. Accurrit quidam, a certain one runs up. Hor.

- 1. Quidam with an adjective is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement:
- Justitia mīrifica quaedam vidētur, justice seems somewhat wonderful. Cic.
- 2. Quidam with quasi, and sometimes without it, has the force of a certain, a kind of, as it were:

Quasi alumna quaedam, a certain foster-child, as it were. Cic.

457. Quisquam and ūllus are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences implying a negative:

Neque me quisquam agnovit, nor did any one recognize me. Cic. SI quisquam, if any one. Cic. Num censes allum animal esse, do you think there is any animal? Cic.

- 1. Nemő is the negative of quisquam, and like quisquam is generally used substantively, rarely adjectively:
 - Nēminem laesit, he harmed no one. Cic. Nēmŏ poēta, no poet. Cic.
- 2. $N\bar{u}llus$ is the negative of $\bar{u}llus$, and is generally used adjectively, but it sometimes supplies the Genitive and Ablative of $n\bar{e}m\bar{o}$, which generally wants those cases:

Nüllum animal, no anima!. Cic. Nüllius aures, the ears of no one. Cic.

- 3. Nūllus and nihil are sometimes used for an emphatic non:
- Nullus vēnit, he did not come. Cic. Mortui nulli sunt, the dead are not. Cic.

458. Quivis, quilibet, 'any one whatever,' and quisque, 'every one,' 'each one,' are general indefinites (190):

Quaelibet res, anything. Cic. Tuorum quisque necessariorum, each one of your friends. Cic.

1. Quisque with superlatives and ordinals is generally best rendered by all, or by ever, always; with primus by very, possible:

Epicurcos doctissimus quisque contemnit, all the most learned despise the Epicureans, or the most learned ever despise, etc. Cic. Primo quoque die, the earliest day possible, the very first. Cic.

2. Ut quisque—ita with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered, the more—the more:

Ut quisque sibi plurimum confidit, ita maxime excellit, the more one confides in one's self, the more one excels. Cic.

459. Alius means 'another, other'; alter, 'the one,' 'the other' (of two), 'the second,' 'a second.' They are often repeated: alius—alius, one—another; aliī—aliī, some—others; alter—alter, the one—the other; alterī—alterī, the one party—the other:

Lēgātōs alium ab aliō aggreditur, he tampers with the ambassadors one after another. Sall. Aliī glōriae serviunt, aliī pecūniae, some are slaves to glory, others to money. Cic. Quidquid negat alter, et alter, whatever one denies, the

other denies. Hor. Alter erit Tiphys, there will be a second Tiphys. Verg. Tu nunc eris alter ab illo, you will now be next after him. Verg. Alteridimicant, alteridiment, one party contends, the other fears. Cic.

1. Alius or alter repeated in different cases, or combined with ali $\bar{a}s$ or alter, often involves an ellipsis:

Alius aliä viä cīvitātem auxērunt, they advanced the state, one in one way, another in another. Liv. Aliter aliī vīvunt, some live in one way, others in another. Cic.

2. After alius, aliter, and the like, atque, ac, and et often mean than:

Non alius essem atque sum, I would not be other than I am. Cic.

8. When alter—alter refer to objects previously mentioned, the first alter usually

refers to the latter object, but may refer to either:

Inimicus, competitor, cum alterō—cum alterō, an enemy, a rival, with the latterwith the former. Cic.

4. Uterque means both, each of two. In the plural it generally means both, each of two parties, but sometimes both, each of two persons or things; regularly so with nouns which are plural in form but singular in sense:

Utrique victoriam crudeliter exercebant, both parties made a cruel use of victory 8sll. Palmäs uträsque tetendit, he extended both his hands. Verg.

CHAPTER V.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS.-USE OF VOICES.

RULE XXXVI.-Agreement of Verb with Subject.

460. A finite verb agrees with its subject in NUMBER and PERSON:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, võs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

1. Participles in Compound Tenses agree with the subject according to 438. See also 301, 1 and 2:

Thebani accusati sunt, the Thebans were accused. Cic.

NOTE 1.—In the compound forms of the Infinitive, the participle in um sometimes occurs without any reference to the gender or number of the subject:

Diffidentia futurum quae imperavisset, from doubt that those things which he had commanded would take place. Sall.

Note 2.—A General or Indefinite subject is often denoted-

1) By the First or Third Person Plural, and in the Subjunctive by the Second Person

Singular: dicimus, 'we (people) say'; dicunt, 'they say'; dicies, 'you (any one) may say':

Si beati esse volumus, if we wish to be happy. Cic. Agere quod agas considerate decet, you (one) should do considerately whatever you do (one does). Cic.

2) By an Impersonal Passive:

Ad fănum concurritur, they rush to the temple. Cic. Nisi cum virtute vivătur, un-less they live (unless one lives) virtuously. Cic.

Note 3.—For the Pronominal Subject contained in the verb, see 368, 2.

NOTE 4.—For the Omission of the Verb, see 368, 3,

- 461. Synesis.—Sometimes the predicate is construed according to the *real meaning* of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus—
 - 1. With collective nouns, pars, multitūdo, and the like:

Multitudo abeunt, the multitude depart. Liv. Pars per agros dilapsi, a part (some) dispersed through the fields. Liv.

NOTE 1.—Here $multitud\bar{o}$ and pars, though singular and feminine in form, are plural and masculine in sense; see also 438, 6. Conversely, the Imperative singular may be used in addressing a multitude individually:

Adde defectionem Siciliae, add (to this, soldiers) the revolt of Sicily, Liv.

NOTE 2.—Of two verbs with the same collective noun, the former is often singular.

and the latter plural:

Juventus ruit certantque, the youth rush forth and contend. Verg.

2. With mīlia, often masculine in sense:

Caesī sunt tria mīlia, three thousand men were slain. Liv.

3. With quisque, utcrque, alius-alium, alter-alterum, and the like:

Uterque ¿ducunt, they each lead out. Caes. Alter alterum videmus, we see each other. Cic.

4. With singular subjects accompanied by an Ablative with cum:

Dux cum prīncipibus capiuntur, the leader with his chiefs is taken. Liv. Quid hūc tantum hominum (= tot hominēs) incēdunt, why are so many men coming hither? Plaut. See also 438, 6.

5. With partim—partim in the sense of pars—pars:

Bonorum partim necessaria, partim non necessaria sunt, of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary. Cic.

462. Sometimes the verb agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive or with a Predicate Noun:

Volsinii, oppidum Tuscorum, concremătum est, Volsinii, a town of the Tuscans, was burned. Plin. Non omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every error should be called folly. Cic. Pueri Trojanum dicitur agmen, the boys are called the Trojan band. Verg.

NOTE 1.—The verb regularly agrees with the appositive when that is urbs, oppidum, or cīvitās, in apposition with plural names of places, as in the first example.

Note 2.—The verb agrees with the predicate noun when that is nearer or more emphatic than the subject, as in the second example.

Note 3.—The verb sometimes agrees with a noun in a subordinate clause after $quan_{\nu}$

Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesīta est, nothing but peace was sought. Cic.

463. With two or more subjects the verb agrees—

I. With one subject, and is understood with the others:

Aut mores spectar aut fortuna solet, either character or fortune is wont to be regarded. Cic. Homerus fuit et Hesiodus ante Romam conditam, Homer and Hesiod lived (were) before the founding of Rome. Cic.

II. With all the subjects conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural number:

Lentulus, Scipió perièrunt, Lentulus and Scipio perished. Cic. Ego et Ciceró valèmus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Tū et Tullia valētis, you and Tullia are well. Cic.

- 1. With SUBJECTS DIFFERING IN PERSON, the verb takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; see examples.
 - 2. For Participles in Compound Tenses, see 439.
- 3. Two Subjects as a Unit.—Two singular subjects forming in sense a unit or whole, admit a singular verb:

Senitus populusque intellegit, the senate and people (i. e., the state as a unit) understand. Cic. Tempus necessităsque postulat, time and necessity (i. e., the crisis) demand. Cic.

4. WITH AUT OR NEO.—When the subjects connected by aut, vel, nec, neque or seu, differ in person, the verb is usually in the plural; but when they are of the same person, the verb usually agrees with the nearest subject:

Haec neque ego neque tu fecimus, neither you nor I have done these things. Ter. Aut Brutus aut Cassius judicavit, either Brutus or Cassius judged. Cic.

- 464. Voices.—With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively. But—
- I. That which in the active construction would be the *object* must be the *subject* in the passive; and—
- II. That which in the active would be the *subject* must be put in the *Ablative* with \bar{a} or ab for *persons*, and in the *Ablative alone* for *things* (415, I.; 420):

Deus omnia constituit, God ordained all things. Ā Deo omnia constituita sunt, all things were ordained by God. Cic. Dei providentia mundum administrat, the providence of God rules the world. Dei providentia mundus administratur, the world is ruled by the providence of God. Cic.

465. The Passive Voice, like the Greek Middle, is sometimes equivalent to the Active with a reflexive pronoun:

Lavantur in fluminibus, they bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers. Caes.

¹ Most Passive forms once had both a *Middle* and a *Passive* meaning, as in Greek; but in Latin the *Middle* or *Reflexive* meaning has nearly disappeared, though retained to a certain extent in special verbs.

Non hie victoria vertitur, not upon this point (here) does victory turn (turn itself). Verg.

1. Intransitive Verbs (193) have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the passive:

Curritur ad praetorium, they run to the praetorium (it is run to). Cic. Mihi cum its vivendum est, I must live with them. Cic.

Note.—Verbs which are usually intransitive are occasionally used transitively, especially in poetry:

Ego cûr invideor, why am I envied? Hor.

2. Deponent Veres, though passive in form, are in signification transitive or intransitive:

Illud mīrābar, I admired that. Cic. Ab urbe proficiscī, to set out from the city. Caes.

Note 1.—Originally many deponent verbs seem to have had the force of the Greek Middle voice: gbrior, 'I boast myself.' 'I boast'; vescor, 'I feed myself.'

NOTE 2.—SEMI-DEPONENTS have some of the active forms and some of the passive, without change of meaning; see 268, 3.

SECTION II.

THE INDICATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

I. PRESENT INDICATIVE.

466. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time:

Ego et Cicero valēmus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Hoc tē rogā, I ask you for this. Cic.

Note.—The Present of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation denotes an intended of future action; that of the Passive, a present necessity or duty:

Bellum scripturus sum, I intend to write the history of the war. Sall. Legendus est hie örätor, this orator ought to be read. Cic.

467. Hence the Present Tense is used-

I. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time, as in the above examples.

II. Of actions and events which, as belonging to all time, belong of course to the present, as general truths and customs:

Nihil est amabilius virtute, nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Fortes fortuna adjuvat, fortune helps the brave. Ter.

III. Of past actions and events which the writer wishes, for effect, to picture before the reader as present. The Present, when so used, is called the Historical Present:

¹ Scriptūrus sum may be variously rendered, I intend to write, am about to write, am to write, am destined to write, etc.; legendus est means he ought to be read, do serves to be read, must be read, etc.

Jugurtha vallo moenia circumdat, Jugurtha surrounded the city with a rampart. Sall.

1. The HISTORICAL PRESENT is used much more freely in Latin than in English. It is therefore generally best rendered by a past tense.

2. The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, especially after jamdiū, jamdūdum, etc.:

Jamdiu Ignoro quid agas, I have not known for a long time what you have been doing. Cic.

3. The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose works are extant:

Xenophon tacit Socratem disputantem, Xenophon represents Socrates discussing, Cic.

4. With dum, 'while,' the Present is generally used, whether the action is present, past, or future:

Dum ea parant, Saguntum oppūgnābātur, while they were (are) making these preparations, Saguntum was attacked. Liv. Dum haec geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est, while these things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar. Caes.

Note.—But with dum, meaning as long as, the Present can be used only of present time.

5. The Present is sometimes used of an action really future, especially in animated discourse and in conditions:

Quam prēndimus arcem, what stronghold do we seize, or are we to seize? Verg. Sī vincimus, omnia tūta erunt, if we conquer, all things will be safe. Sall.

6. The Present is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action:

Virtūtem accendit, he tries to kindle their valor. Verg. Quid mē terrēs, why do you try to terrify me? Verg.

II. IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

468. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time:

Stābant nöbilissimī juvenēs, there stood (were standing) most noble youths. Liv. Collés oppidum eingēbant, hills encompassed the town. Caes. Mötūrus exercitum erat, he was intending to move his army. Liv.

Note.—For the Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see ${\bf 511},\,2$

469. Hence the Imperfect is used especially—

I. In lively description, whether of scenes or events:

Ante oppidum planities patēbat, before the town extended a plain. Caes. Fulgentes gladios vidēbant, they saw (were seeing) the gleaming swords. Cic.

II. Of customary or repeated actions and events, often rendered was wont, etc.:

¹ Here the time denoted by parant is present relatively to oppūgnābātur, and there fore really past.

Prusanias epuläbatur mõre Persarum, Pausanias was wont to banquet in the Persaan style. Nep.

1. The Imperfect is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action: 1 Sedabant tumultus, they attempted to quell the seditions. Liv.

2. The Imperfect is often used of a past action which had been going on for some time, especially with jamdiū, jamdūdum, etc.: 1

Domicilium Romae multos jam annos habebat, he had already for many years had his residence at Rome. Cic.

3. The Latin sometimes uses the Imperfect where the English requires the Present: 2

Pāstum animantibus nātūra eum quī cuique aptus erat, comparāvit, nature has prepared for animals that food which is adapted to each. Cic.

Note 1 .- For the Imperfect in Letters, see 472, 1.

NOTE 2.—For the Descriptive Imperfect in NARRATION, see 471, 6.

NOTE 3.—For the *Historical Tenses* in expressions of DUTY, PROPRIETY, NECESSITY, etc., see 476, 4.

III. FUTURE INDICATIVE.

470. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:

Serībam ad tē, I shall write to you. Cic. Nūnquam aberrābimus, we shall never go astray. Cic.

1. In Latin, as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:

Cūrābis et scrībēs, you will take care and write. Cic.

2. Actions which really belong to future time are almost invariably expressed by the Future tense, though sometimes put in the Present in English:

Năturam si sequemur, nunquam aberrabimus, if we follow nature, we shall never go astray. Cic.

IV. PERFECT INDICATIVE.

471. The Perfect Indicative has two distinct uses:

I. As the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with have:

De genere belli dixi, I have spoken of the character of the war. Cic.

II. As the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite, it represents the action simply as an historical fact:

¹ Observe that the peculiarities of the Present reappear in the Imperfect. This arises from the fact that these two tenses are precisely alike in representing the action in its progress, and that they differ only in time. The one views the action in the present, the other transfers it to the past.

² This occurs occasionally in the statement of general truths and in the description of natural scenes, but in such cases the truth or the scene is viewed not from the present but from the past.

Miltiades est accusatus, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Quid factūrī furstis, what did you intend to do, or what would you have done? Cic.

Note.—For the Perfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see 476, 1.

- 1. The Perfect is sometimes used-
- 1) Instead of the Present to denote the suddenness of the action:

Terra tremit, mortalia corda stravit pavor, the earth trembles, fear overwhelms (has overwhelmed) the hearts of mortals. Vers.

2) To contrast the past with the present, implying that what was true then is not true now:

Habuit, non habet, he had, but has not. Cic. Fuit Ilium, Ilium was. Verg.

2. The Perfect Indicative with paene, prope, may often be rendered by might, would, or by the Pluperfect Indicative:

Brutum non minus amo, paene divi, quam te, I love Brutus not less, I might almost say, or I had almost said, than I love you. Cic.

3. The Latin sometimes employs the Perfect and Pluperfect where the English uses the Present and Imperfect, especially in repeated actions, and in verbs which want the Present (297):

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers 1 the past. Cic. Cum ad villam vēnī, hoc me delectat, when I come (have come) to a villa, this pleases me. Cic. Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Cic.

4. Conjunctions meaning as soon as 2 are usually followed by the Perfect; sometimes by the Imperfect or Historical Present. But the Pluperfect is sometimes used, especially to denote the result of a completed action:

Postquam cecidit Îlium, after (as soon as) Ilium fell, or had fallen. Verg. His ubi nătum prosequitur dictis, when he had addressed his son with these words. Verg. Posteaquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul. Cic. Anno tertio postquam profugerat. in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

5. In Subordinate Clauses after cum (quum), si, etc., the Perfect is sometimes used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs: 5

Cum ad villam vēnī, hỗc mẽ delectat, whenever I come (have come) to a villa, this delights me. Cic.

NOTE.—In such cases the principal clause generally retains the Present, as in the example just given, but in *poetry* and in *late prose* it sometimes admits the Perfect:

Tulit punctum qui miscuit utile dulei, he wins (has won) favor who combines (has combined) the useful with the agreeable. Hor.

6. In Animated Narrative, the Perfect usually narrates the leading events, and the Imperfect describes the attendant circumstances:

Cultum mūtāvit, veste Mēdicā ūtēbātur, epulābātur more Persārum, he changed his mode of life, used the Median dress, feasted in the Fersian style.

¹ Literally, has recalled, and so remembers, as the result of the act. The Latin presents the completed act, the English the result.

² As postquam, ubĭ, ubĭ prīmum, ut, ut prīmum, simul atque (āc), etc.

³ Historical present; lit., when he attends.

⁴ And so was then a man of consular rank.

⁵ This use of the Latin Perfect corresponds to the Gnomic Aorist in Greek

Nep. Se in oppida receperunt murisque se tenebant, they betook themselves into their towns and kept themselves within their walls. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The Compound Tenses in the Passive often denote the result of the action. Thus, doctus est may mean either he has been instructed, or he is a learned man (lit., an instructed man):

Fuit doctus ex disciplină Stōicōrum, he was instructed in (lit., out of) the learning of the Stoics. Cic. Nāvis parāta fuit, the vessel was ready (lit., was prepared). Liv.

NOTE 2.—For the Perfect in Letters, see 472, 1.

Note 3.—For the *Historical Tenses* in expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity. 4to., see 476, 4.

V. PLUPERFECT INDICATIVE.

472. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at some past time:

Pyrrhī temporibus jam Apollŏ versūs facere dēsierat, in the times of Pyrrhus Apollo had already ceased to make verses.¹ Cic. Cōpiās quās prō castrīs collocāverat, redūxit, he led back the forces which he had stationed before the camp. Caes. Cum esset Dēmosthenēs, multī ōrātōrēs clārī fuērunt et anteā fuerant, when Demosthenes lived there were many illustrious orators, and there had been before. Cic.

1. In Letters, the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect of present actions and events, and the Pluperfect of those which are past:²

Nihil habəbam quod scriberem; ad tuās omnēs epistulās rescrīpseram prīdiē, I have (had) nothing to write; I replied to all your letters yesterday. Cic. Prīdiē Īdūs haec scrīpsī; eō diē apud Pompōnium eram cēnātūrus, I write this on the day before the Ides; I am going to dine to-day with Pomponius. Cic.

2. The Pluperfect after cum, sī, etc., is often used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs: 5

Si hostës deterrere nëquiverant circumveniëbant, if they were (had been) unable to deter the enemy, they surrounded them. Sall.

Note 1.—For the Pluperfect in the sense of the English Imperfect, see 471, 3.

NOTE 2.—For the *Historical Tenses* in expressions of DUTY, PROPRIETY, NECESSITY, etc., see 476, 4.

 $^{^{1}}$ Observe that $d\bar{e}sierat$ represents the action as already completed at the time designated.

² This change is by no means uniformly made, but is subject to the pleasure of the writer. It is most common near the beginning and the end of letters.

Sobserve that the adverbs and the adverbial expressions are also adapted to the time of the reader. Heri, 'yesterday,' becomes to the reader pridie,' the day before'—i. e., the day before the writing of the letter. In the same way hodie, 'to-day,' 'this day,' becomes to the reader eô die, 'that day,'

⁴ The Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is sometimes thus used of *future* events which are expected to happen *before* the receipt of the letter. Events which will be future to the reader as well as to the writer must be expressed by the Future.

⁵ See the similar use of the Perfect, 471, 5.

[•] That is, whenever they were unable.

VI. FUTURE PERFECT INDICATIVE.

473. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Romam cum vēnero, scrībam ad tē, when I shall have reached Rome, I will write to you. Cic. Dum tu haec legēs, ego illum fortasse convēnero, when you read this, I shall perhaps have already met him. Cic.

1. The Future Perfect is sometimes used to denote the *complete* accomplishment of the work;

Ego meum officium praestitero, I shall discharge my duty. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect is sometimes found in conditional clauses where we use the Present:

Sī interpretārī potuero, hīs verbīs ūtitur, if I can (shall have been able to) understand him, he uses these words. Cic.

VII. USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

RULE XXXVII .- Indicative.

474. The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Nonne expulsus est patriā, was he not banished from his country? Cic. Hoe feel dum licuit, I did this as long as it was permitted. Cic.

475. The Indicative is thus used in treating of facts—

I. In *Principal Clauses*, whether Declarative as in the first example or Interrogative as in the second.

II. In Subordinate Clauses. Thus-

1. In Relative Clauses:

Dixit id quod dīgnissimum rē pūblicā fuit, he stated that which was most worthy of the republic. Cic. Quicquam bonum est, quod non eum quī id possidet meliorem facit, is anything good which does not make him better who possesses it? Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Relative Clauses, see 497; 500; 503; 507, 2, etc.

2. In Conditional Clauses:

Sī haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic.

Note 1.—For the special uses of the *Indicative* in Conditional Sentences, see **508**. Note 2.—For the *Subjunctive* in Conditional Sentences, see **509**; **510**.

3. In Concessive Clauses:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nunquam dicunt, although they understand, they never speak. Cic.

Norn.—For the Subjunctive in Concessive Clauses, see 515.

¹ Including, of course, all simple sentences.

4. In Causal Clauses:

Quoniam supplicătió decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed. Cic. Quia honore digni habentur, because they are deemed worthy of honor. Curt.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Causal Clauses, see 516; 517.

5. In Temporal Clauses:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Priusquam lucet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Temporal Clauses, see 519; 520; 521.

476. Special Uses.—The Indicative is sometimes used where our idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:

1. The *Indicative* of the *Periphrastic Conjugations* is often so used in the historical tenses, especially in conditional sentences (511, 2):

Haec condició non accipienda fuit, this condition should not have been accepted. Cic.

2. The *Historical Tenses* of the *Indicative*, particularly the *Pluperfect*, are sometimes used for *effect*, to represent as an actual fact something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:

Vicerāmus, nisi recēpisset Antōnium, we should have (lit., had) conquered, had he not received Antony. Cic. See 511, 1.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled or by assuming the suffix cumque (187, 3), take the Indicative:

Quisquis est, is est sapiens, whoever he is, he is wise. Cic. Hốc ultimum, utcunque initum est, proclium fuit, this, however it was commenced, was the last battle. Liv. Quidquid oritur, quilecumque est, causam habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever character it may be (lit., is), it has a cause. Cic.

4. In expressions of *Duty, Propriety, Necessity, Ability*, and the like, the Latin often uses the Indicative, chiefly in the historical tenses, in a manner somewhat at variance with the English idiom:

Non suscipi bellum oportuit, the war should not have been undertaken. Liv. Eum contumeliis onerasti, quem colere debebas, you have loaded with insults one whom you should have (ought to have) revered. Cic. Multos possum bonos viros nominare, I might name (lit., I am able to name) many good men. Cic. Hanc mecum poteras requiescere noctem, you might rest (might have rested) with me this night. Verg.

5. The Indicative of the verb sum is often used with longum, acquum, acquius, difficile, jūstum, melius, pār, ūtilius, etc., in such expressions as longum est, 'it would be tedious,' melius erat, 'it would have been better':

Longum est persequi ütilitätes, it would be tedious (is a long task) to recount the uses. Cic. Melius fuerat, promissum non esse servatum, it would have been better that the promise should not have been kept. Cic.

¹ Literally, it was fitting or proper that the war should not be undertaken.

SECTION III.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

- 477. The Latin Subjunctive 1 has two principal uses-
- I. It may represent an action as WILLED or DESIRED:

Amēmus patriam, LET US LOVE our country. Cic.

- II. It may represent an action as PROBABLE or POSSIBLE: Quaerat quispiam, some one MAY INQUIRE. Cic.
- 478. Tenses in the Subjunctive do not designate the time of the action so definitely as in the Indicative.
- 479. The Present Subjunctive in principal clauses ² embraces in a vague and general manner both *present* and *future* time: ³

Amemus patriam, let us love our country (now and ever). Ci.. Quaerat quispiam, some one may (or will) inquire (at any time). Cic.

480. The IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE in principal clauses relates sometimes to the *past* and sometimes to the *present*:

Crederes victos, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Utinam possem, would that I were able (now). Cic.

481. The Perfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates sometimes to the past, but more frequently to the present or future:

¹ The Latin Subjunctive, it will be remembered (p. 117, foot-note 4), contains the forms and the meaning of two kindred moods, the Subjunctive proper, and the Optative. In Latin, the forms characteristic of these two moods, used without any difference of meaning, are made to supplement each other. Thus, in the Present, the Optative forms are found in the First Conjugation, and the Subjunctive forms in the Second, Third, and Fourth. In their origin they are only special developments of certain forms of the Present Indicative, denoting continued and attempted action. From this idea of attempted action was readily developed on the one hand desire, will, as we attempt only what we desire, and on the other hand probability, possibility, as we shall very likely accomplish what we are already attempting. These two meanings, united in one word, lie at the basis of all Subjunctive constructions in Latin. On the origin, history, and use of the Subjunctive, see Delbrück, 'Conjunctive und Optativ'; Curtius, 'Verbum,' II., pp. 55-95; Draeger, II., pp. 439-743; Roby, II., pp. 202-848; also a paper by the author on 'The Development of the Latin Subjunctive in Principal Clauses,' Transactions Am. Phil. Assoc., 1879.

² For the tenses of the Subjunctive in Subordinate clauses, see 490.

³ The Present Subjunctive in its origin is closely related both in form and in meaning to the Future Indicative. Thus, in the Third and Fourth Conjugations, no future forms for the Indicative have been developed, but Subjunctive and Optative forms supply their place, as regam, audiam (Subjunctive), and regēs, reget, etc., and audiës, audiet, etc. (Optative).

Fuerit malus cīvis, he may have been (admit that he was) a bad citizen. Cic. Në transieris i Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro (now or at any time). Liv.

482. The Pluperfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates to the past:

Utinam potuissem, would that I had been able. Cic.

SECTION IV.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES.

RULE XXXVIII.—Subjunctive of Desire, Command.

483. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS DESIRED:

Valeant cīvēs, may the citizens be well. Cic. Amēmus patriam, let us love our country. Cic. Ā nōbīs dīligātur, let him be loved by us. Cic. Scrībere nē pigrēre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

1. The Subjunctive of Desire is often accompanied by utinam, and sometimes, especially in the poets, by ut, $s\bar{s}$, \bar{o} $s\bar{s}$:

Utinam conata efficere possim, may I be able to accomplish my endeavors. Cic. Ut illum di perdant, would that the gods would destroy him. Ter.

2. Force of Tenses.—The Present and Perfect imply that the wish may be fulfilled; the Imperfect and Pluperfect, that it can not be fulfilled:

Sint beati, may they be happy. Cic. Ne transier's Iberum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv. Utinam possem, utinam potuissem, would that I were able, would that I had been able, Cic.

Note.—The Imperfect and Pluperfect may often be best rendered should, should have, ought to have:

Hoc dicerct, he should have said this. Cic. Mortem oppetiisses, you should have met death. Cic.

3. Negatives.—With the Subjunctive of Desire, the negative is nē, rarely non; with a connective, nēve, neu, rarely neque:

Ne audeant, let them not dare. Cic. Non recedamus, let us not recede. Cic. Ames die pater, neu sinas, etc., may you love to be called father, and may you not permit, etc. Hor. Neve minor neu sit productior, let it be neither shorter nor longer. Hor.

Note.—Nedum, 'not to say,' 'much less,' is used with the Subjunctive:

Vix in tectis frigus vitatur, nedum in marī sit facile abesse ab injūriā, the cold is avoided with difficulty in our houses, much less is it easy to escape (to be absent from) injury on the sea. Cic.

4. The first person of the Subjunctive is often found in earnest or solemn Affirmations:

Observe that the Perfect thus used does not at all differ in time from the Present, but that it calls attention to the completion of the action.

Moriar, sī putč, may I die, if I think. Cic. Nē sim salvus, sī scrībō, may I not be safe, if I write. Cic. Sollicitat, ita vīvam, as I live, it troubles me. 1 Cic.

5. The Subjunctive of Desire is sometimes used in Relative Clauses:

Quod faustum sit, regem create, elect a king, and may it be an auspicious event (may which be suspicious). Liv. Senectus, ad quam utinam perveniatis, old age, to which may you attain. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive of Desire in Subordinate Clauses, see 486, III., note, with foot-note.

6. Modo, modo ne, may accompany the Subjunctive of Desire:

Modo Juppiter adsit, only let Jupiter be present. Verg. Modo në laudent, only let them not praise. Cic.

484. The Subjunctive of Desire may be in meaning—

I. OPTATIVE, as in prayers and wishes:

Sint beati, may they be happy. Cic. Di bene vertant, may the gods cause it to turn out well. Plant.

II. HORTATIVE, as in exhortations and entreaties:

Consulamus bonis, let us consult for the good. Cic.

III. CONCESSIVE, as in admissions and concessions:

Fuerint pertinaces, grant (or admit) that they were obstinate. Cic.

IV. IMPERATIVE, as in mild commands, admonitions, warnings, etc., used chiefly in prohibitions:

Illum jocum në sis aspernatus, do not despise that jest. Cic. Scribere në pigrëre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

NOTE 1 .- In prohibitions, the Perfect tense is generally used:

Në transieris Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv.

NOTE 2.—Except in *prohibitions*, the Second Person Singular in the best prose is used almost exclusively of an *indefinite you*, meaning *one*, any one:

Isto bono utare, you should use (i. e., one should use) that advantage. Cic.

V. Deliberative, as in deliberative questions, to ask what should be:

Huic cēdāmus, hūjus condiciōnēs audiāmus, shall we yield to him, shall we listen to his terms? Cic. Quid facerem, what was I to do? Verg.

RULE XXXIX.-Potential Subjunctive.

485. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS POSSIBLE:

Hie quaerat quispiam, here some one may inquire. Cic. Ita laudem inveniās, thus you will (or may) obtain praise. Ter. Ita amīcos parēs, thus you will make friends. Ter. Vix dīcere ausim, I should scarcely dare to

3 Or, what should I have done?

Here ita vivam means, may I so live (i. e., may I live only in case this is true).

² Or, ought we to yield, is it your wish that we should yield?

say. Liv. Crēderēs vīctōs, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire. Cic. Hoc nēmo dīxerit, no one would say this. Cic. Quis dubitet (= nēmo dubitat), who would doubt (or who doubts = no one doubts)? Cic. Hoc quis ferre possit, who would be able to endure this? Cic.

NOTE 1.—In the Potential Subjunctive, the Perfect often has nearly the same force as the Present, and the Imperfect is often used where we should expect the Pluperfect; dieeres, 'you would have said'; crēderes, putūrēs, 'you would have thought'; vidērēs, vermerēs, 'you would have seen':

Tu Platonem laudūveris, you would praise Plato. Cic. Maesti, crèderès victos, redeunt in castra, sad, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to the camp. Liv.

Note 2.—On Tenses, see also 478-482.

NOTE 3.—The Second Person Singular, especially of the Imperfect, is often used of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one: créderés, 'you would have thought,' 'any one would have thought,'

486. In the Potential sense, the Subjunctive is used-

I. In Declarative Sentences, to express an affirmation modestly, doubtfully, or conditionally; see examples.

NOTE 1.—Thus, in the language of politeness and modesty, the Potential Subjunctive is often used in verbs of wishing and thinking: velim, 'I should wish,' for volŏ, 'I wish'; nōlim, 'I should be unwilling'; mālim, 'I should prefer':

Ego censeam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Liv. Mihi dari velim, I should like to have it given to me. Cic.

Note 2.—The Potential Subjunctive is used in the conclusion of conditional sentences; see 507, 1, with foot-note.

II. In *Interrogative Sentences*, to ask not what is, but what is *likely to* be, what may be or would be, generally implying a negative answer, as in the last two examples under the rule.

Note.—The Subjunctive with ut, with or without the interrogative ne, occurs in questions expressive of impatience or surprise: ²

Të ut ûlla rës frangat, how should anything subdue you? Cic. Egone ut mentiar, that I should speak falsely? Plaut.

III. In Subordinate Clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as possible rather than real:

Quamquam epulis careat senectüs, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic. Quoniam non possent, since they would not be able. Caes. Ubi res posceret, whenever the case might demand. Liv.

Note.—From the Subjunctive of Desire and the Potential Subjunctive in principal clauses have been developed the various uses of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses.³

¹ After forsitan = fors sit an, 'the chance may be whether,' 'perhaps,' the Subjunctive was originally in an indirect question (529), but it may be best treated as Potential. So also with forsan and fortasse.

² Some grammarians assume an ellipsis of a predicate, as crēdibile est, fierī potest, etc.

Thus, the Subjunctive of Desire is used in final, conditional, and concessive clauses; the Potential Subjunctive in clauses of result, and in various others denoting

SECTION V.

THE IMPERATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

RULE XL.-Imperative.

487. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties:

Jūstitiam cole, practice justice. Cic. Tū nē cēde malīs, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Sī quid in tē peccāvī, īgnōsce, if I have sinned against you, pardon me. Cic.

- 1. The Present Imperative corresponds to the Imperative in English: Justitiam cole, practice justice. Cic. Perge, Catilina, go, Catiline. Cic.
- 2. The Future Imperative corresponds to the imperative use of the English Future with shall, or to the Imperative let, and is used—
 - 1) In commands involving future rather than present action:

Rem penditöte, you shall consider the subject. Cic. Cras petito, dabitur, ask to-morrow, it shall be granted. Plaut.

2) In laws, orders, precepts, etc., especially in prohibitions:

Consules nemini parento, the consuls shall be subject to no one. Cic. Salus populi suprema lex esto, the safety of the people shall be the supreme law. Cic.

Note.—The general distinction between the Present Imperative and the Future is often disregarded, especially in poetry: 1

Ubī aciem vīderīs, tum ōrdinēs dissipā, when you shall see the line of battle, then scatter the ranks. Liv. Quoniam supplicātið dēcrēta est, celebrātōte illōs diēs, since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic.

3. An Imperative clause may be used instead of a Conditional clause:

Lacesse, jam videbis furentem, provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic.

4. The place of the Imperative may be supplied by the Subjunctive of Desire (483), or by the Future Indicative:

Në audeant, let them not dare. Cic. Quod optimum vidëbitur, faciës, you will do what shall seem best. Cic.

488. In prohibitions or negative commands, the negative $n\bar{e}$, rarely $n\bar{e}n$, accompanies the Imperative, and if a connective is required, $n\bar{e}ve$ or neu is generally used, rarely neque:

Tử në cëde malis, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Hominem mortuum in urbe në sepelitë, nëve ŭritë, thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead body in the city. Cic.

what is likely to be. Moreover, from these two leading uses was developed the idea of a conceived or assumed action, which probably lies at the foundation of all the other uses of this mood, as in causal and temporal clauses, in indirect questions, and in the subordinate clauses of the indirect discourse.

¹ Thus the Future is especially common in certain verbs; and, indeed, in some verbs, as sciō, memini, etc., it is the only form in common use.

- 489. Instead of $n\bar{e}$ with the Present Imperative, the best prose writers generally use—
 - 1) Nolī and nolīte with the Infinitive:

Nolite putare, do not think (be unwilling to think). Cic.

2) Fac në or cavě, with the Subjunctive:

Fac në quid aliud curës hoc tempore, do not attend to anything else at this time. Cic. Cave facias, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

3) $N\bar{e}$ with the Perfect Subjunctive, rarely with the Present; see 484, IV., note 1.

SECTION VI.

MOODS IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

- I. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.
- 490. In subordinate clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive conform to the following rule:

RULE XLI.-Sequence of Tenses.

491. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical upon historical:

Nītitur ut vincat, he strives to conquer. Cic. Nēmŏ erit quī cēnseat, there will be no one who will think. Cic. Quaesierās nonne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Ut honore dīgnus essem laborāvī, I strove to be worthy of honor. Cic.

492. In accordance with this rule, the Subjunctive dependent upon a principal tense, present, future, future perfect, is put—

1. In the Present, to denote incomplete action:

Quaeritur cur dissentiant, the question is asked why they disagree. Cic. Nemě erit qui cinseat, there will be no one who will think. Cic.

Note.—Observe that in these examples the action denoted by the Subjunctive belongs either to the *present* time or to the *future*.

2. In the Perfect, to denote completed action:

Quaerāmus quae vitia fuerint, let us inquire what faults there were. Cic. Rogitābit mē ubī fuerim, he will ask me where I have been. Ter.

Note 1.—In the sequence of tenses, the Perfect is $\it occasionally$ treated as a $\it principal$ tense; 2

Oblitus es quid dixerim, you have forgotten what I said. Cic.

Note 2.—For further illustrations of the sequence of tenses, see 493, 2, note 2.

¹ The Present Subjunctive generally denotes *present time* in relation to the principal verb. Accordingly, *vincat* depending upon the *present*, *nītitur*, denotes *present* time, while *cēnseat* depending upon the *future*, *erit*, denotes *future* time.

² For the treatment of the Perfect in the sequence of tenses, see 495.

493. The Subjunctive dependent upon an historical tense, imperfect, historical perfect, pluperfect, is put—

1. In the Imperfect, to denote incomplete action:

Timēbam nē ēvenīrent ea, I was fearing that those things would take place (i. e., at some future time). Cic. Quaesierās nōnne putārem, you had inquired whether I did not think (i. e., at that time). Cic.

NOTE.—Observe that in these examples the time of the action denoted by the Subjunctive is either the same as that of the principal verb or subsequent to it.

2. In the Pluperfect, to denote completed action:

Themistocles, cum Graeciam liberässet, expulsus est, Themistocles was banished, though he had liberated Greece. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Pluperfect after an historical tense, like the Perfect after a principal tense, may represent the action as completed in future time; see 496, II.

Note 2 .- The sequence of tenses may be further illustrated as follows: 1

Nescit quid faciās, He knows not what you are doing. Nesciet quid faciās, He will not know what you will do.2 Nescīverit quid faciās, He will not have known what you will do. Nescit quid fēceris, He knows not what you have done, or what you did.3 Nesciet quid feceris, He will not know what you will have done.4 Nesciverit quid fēceris, He will not have known what you will have done. Nesciebat quid faceres, He did not know what you were doing.5 Nescīvit quid facerēs, He did not know what you were doing.5 Nesciverat quid faceres. He had not known what you were doing. Nesciebat quid fecisses, He did not know what you had done. Nescīvit quid fēcissēs,

Nescivit quid fēcissēs,

Nesciverat quid fēcissēs,

He had not know what you had done.

494. The periphrastic forms in rus and dus conform to the general rule for the sequence of tenses:

Incertum est quam longa vīta futūra sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quō missūrī clāssem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet. Liv.

495. Peculiarities in Sequence.—The following peculiarities in the sequence of tenses deserve notice:

I. In the sequence of tenses the *Latin Perfect* is generally treated as an historical tense, even when rendered with *have*, and thus admits the *Imperfect* or *Pluperfect*:

Quoniam quae subsidia habērēs exposuī, nunc dīcam, since I have shown

¹ It is not intended to give all the possible meanings of the Subjunctive clauses here used, but simply to illustrate the sequence of tenses.

² Or, he will not know what you are doing. Thus, quid faciās may represent the direct question, quid faciës, 'what shall you do?' or quid faces, 'what are you doing?'

³ Or, what you were doing.

⁴ Or, what you have done, or what you did.

⁵ Or, what you would do. Nescivit may sometimes be rendered, he has not known.

⁶ Exposui, though best rendered by our Perfect Definite with have, is in the Latin

what aids you have, I will now speak. Cic. Have non ut vos excitarem locutus sum, I have not spoken this to arouse (that I might arouse) you. Cic.

Note. - For the Perfect as a principal tense, see 492, 2, note 1.

II. The Historical Present (467, III.) is generally treated as an historical tense, but sometimes as a principal tense:

Persuādet Castico ut regnum occupāret, he persuaded Casticus to seize the government. Caes. Ubiī orant ut sibi parcat, the Ubii implore him to spare them. Caes.

Note.—The *Historical Present* includes the Present used of authors (467, 3), the **Present** with dum (467, 4), the Historical Infinitive (536, 1), etc.:

Chrysippus disputat Aethera esse eum quem homines Jovem appellärent, Chrysippus contends that he whom men call Jupiter is Aether, Cic.

III. The *Imperfect Subjunctive*, even when it refers to present time, as in conditional sentences, is generally treated as an *historical* tense, though sometimes as a *principal* tense:

Nisi ineptum putārem, jūrārem mē ea sentīre quae dīcerem, if I did not think it improper, I would take an oath that I believe those things which I say. Cic. Memorāre possem quibus in locīs hostēs populus Rōmānus fūderit, I might state in what places the Roman people routed the enemy. Sall.

IV. The Perfect Infinitive is generally treated as an historical tense, but the Present and the Future Infinitive, the Present and the Future Participle, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time (537, 550):

Satis videor docuisse, hominis natūra quantō anteīret animantēs, I think I have sufficiently shown how much the nature of man surpasses that of the other animals (lit., surpassed animals). Cic. Spērō fore 1 ut contingat, I hope it will happen. Cic. Non spērāverat fore ut ad sē dēficerent, he had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv. Mīsērunt Delphōs cōnsultum quidnam facerent, they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do. Nep.

V. Clauses containing a general truth usually conform to the law for the sequence of tenses, at variance with the English idiom:

Quanta conscientiae vis esset, ostendit, he showed how great is the power of conscience. Cic.

VI. Clauses denoting consequence or result generally express absolute time, and are thus independent of the law of sequence.² They thus admit the Present or Perfect after historical tenses:

Epamīnondās fidē sīc ūsus est, ut possit jūdicārī,2 Epaminondas used such

treated as the Historical Perfect. The thought is as follows: Since in the preceding topics I set forth the aids which you have, I will now speak, etc.

¹ Literally, I hope it will be that it may happen. Here fore shares the tense of spērŏ, and is accordingly followed by the Present, contingat; but below it shares the tense of spērōxerat, and is accordingly followed by the Imperfect, dēficerent.

² This peculiarity arises from the fact that the result of a past action may itself be

fidelity that it may be judged. Nep. Adeo excellebat Aristides abstinentia, ut Justus sit appellatus, Aristides so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just. Nep.

VII. For the sequence of tenses in the indirect discourse, see 525.

- 496. Future Time in the Subjunctive.—When the Future is used in the principal clause, the Future and Future Perfect tenses, wanting in the Latin Subjunctive, are supplied in the subordinate clauses as follows:
- I. The Future is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the PRESENT, and (2) after an historical tense by the IMPERFECT:

Omnia sie agentur ut bellum sēdētur, all things shall be so managed that the war will be brought to a close. Cic. Loquēbantur, etiam cum vellet Caesar, sēsē non esse pūgnātūros, they were saying that they would not fight even when Caesar should wish it. Caes.

II. The Future Perfect is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Perfect, and (2) after an historical tense by the Peuperfect:

Respondet sī id sit factum, sē nocitūrum nīminī, he replies that if this should be done (shall have been done) he will harm no one. Caes. Appārēbat rēgnātūrum, quī vīcisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The Future and the Future Perfect tenses are often supplied in the same way, even when the Future does not occur in the principal clause provided the idea of future time can be easily inferred from the context:

Vereor në laborem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic. Quid diës ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quid hostës consilli caperent, exspectabant, they waited to see what plan the enemy would adopt. Caes. Delitui, dum vela dedissent, I hid myself until they should have set sail. Verg.

NOTE 2.—When the idea of future time must be especially emphasized in the subordinate clause, the periphrastic forms in rus are used: 2

Incertum est quam longa vita fitura sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quō missūrī clūssem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet. Liv.

NOTE 3.—The Future Perfect is sometimes supplied in the Passive by futūrus sim and futūrus essem with the Perfect Participle: ²

Non dubito quin confecta jam res futura sit, I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished. Cic.

present, and may thus be expressed by a principal tense. When the result belongs to the present time, the Present is used: possit jūdicārī, 'may be judged now'; when it is represented as completed, the Perfect is used: sit appellātus, 'has been called' (i. e., even to the present day); but when it is represented as simultaneous with the action on which it depends, the Imperfect is used in accordance with the general rule (491).

- ¹ $S\bar{e}d\bar{e}tur$, referring to the same time as agentur, and vellet, referring to the same time as $esse~p\bar{u}gn\bar{a}t\bar{u}r\bar{c}s$, both denote future time.
- 2 Other traditional periphrastic forms, rarely used in either voice, are—for the FUTURE, futürum sit ut with the Present Subjunctive, and futürum esset ut with the Imperfect; and for the FUTURE PERFECT, futürum sit ut with the Perfect, and futürum esset ut with the Pluperfect.

II. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF PURPOSE.

RULE XLII.-Purpose.

497. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose:1

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.:

Missī sunt quī (=ut iī) consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo (who should, or that they should). Nep. Missī sunt dēlectī quī Thermopylas occupārent, picked men were sent to take possession of Thermopylae. Nep. Domum, ubĭ habitāret, lēgit, he selected a house where he might dwell (that he might dwell in it). Cic. Locum petit, unde (=ut inde) hostem invādat, he seeks a position from which he may (that from it he may) attack the enemy. Liv.

II. With ut, nē, quō, quōminus, quō minus:

Entitur ut vincat, he strives that HE MAY CONQUER. Cic. Punit në peccetur, he punishes that crime MAY not BE COMMITTED. Sen. Lëgum idcirco servi sumus, ut liberi esse possimus, we are servants of the law for this reason, that we may be free. Cic. Medico dare quo sit studiosior, to give to the physician, that (by this means) he may be more attentive. Cic. Non recusavit quominus poenam subiret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep.

1. Ut or $ut\bar{\imath}$ and $n\bar{\imath}$ are the usual conjunctions in clauses denoting purpose. A correlative, $ide\bar{o}$, $ideirc\bar{o}$, $e\bar{o}$, etc., sometimes precedes, as in the third example under II.

Note.—With a connective ne becomes neve, neu, rarely neque; see 483, 3:

Lêgem tult ne quis accusaretur neve multaretur, he proposed a law that no one should be accused or punished. Nep.

2. Quō, 'by which,' 'that,' is sometimes used in clauses denoting purpose, especially with comparatives, as in the fourth example under II. Quōminus, 'by which the less,' 'that thus the less,' 'that not,' is simply quō with the comparative minus. It is sometimes used after verbs of hindering, opposing, and the like, as in the last example under II.

Note. — Quō sētius also occurs in the sense of quōminus; see Cic. Inv., II., 45.

498. CLAUSES OF PURPOSE readily pass into Object Clauses.2

¹ The Subjunctive of Purpose is doubtless in origin a Subjunctive of Desire, expressing the desire or command implied in the action of the principal verb: Tō rogō ut eum juvēs, I ask you to aid him (I ask you, so aid him). Here the second clause, originally independent, contains the desire, wish, involved in rogō. Vereor nō labōrem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor (I fear, let me not increase the labor). Praestō erit pontife, quī conitia habeat, the pontiff will be present to hold the comitia (the pontiff will be present, let him hold the conitia). Liv. See Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 59-62.

² An Object Clause is one which has become virtually the *object* of a verb. Thus, in 'opto ut id audiātis,' the clause ut id audiātis has become the object of opto, 'I desire.'

but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—

I. With verbs signifying Desire and its Expression; hence decision, decree, etc.: 1

Opto ut id audiātis, I desire (pray) that you may hear this. Cic. Ut mihī aedēs aliquās condūcās volō, I wish that you would hire a house for me. Plaut. Senātus cēnsuerat, utī Aeduōs dēfenderet, the senate had decreed that he should defend the Aedui. Caes. Servīs imperat ut filiam defendant, he commands his servants to defend his daughter. Cic. Tē hortor ut legās, I exhort you to read. Cic. Tē rogō ut eum juvēs, I ask you to aid him. Cic. Ā rēge petivērunt nē inimicissimum suum sēcum habēret, they asked from the king that he would not keep his worst enemy with him. Nep.

Note.—Verbs of determining, deciding—statuō, cī nstituō, dēcernō, etc.—generally take the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, otherwise the Infinitive (533, I., 1):

Constituerat, ut tribûnus quererstur, he had arranged t'at the tribune should enter the complaint. Sall. Senatus decrevit, darent operam consules, the senate decreed that the consuls should attend to it. Sall. Manere decrevit, he decided to remain. Nep.

II. With verbs and expressions denoting Effort (striving for a purpose, attaining a purpose) or IMPULSE (urging to effort):²

Contendit ut vincat, he strives to conquer. Cic. Cūrāvī ut bene vīverem, I took care to lead a good life. Sen. Effect ut imperātor mitterētur, he caused a commander to be sent (attained his purpose). Nep. Movēmur ut bonī sīmus, we are influenced to be good. Cic.

Note 1.—Some verbs of endeavoring, striving, as conor, contendo, nitor, studeo, and tento, generally take the Infinitive when no new subject is introduced; see 533:

Locum oppugnare contendit, he proceeds to storm the city. Caes. Tentabo de hoc dicere, I will attempt to speak of this. Quint.

Note 2.—Ut with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with facto or ago, rarely with est, a circumlocution for the Indicative: facto ut dicam = dico; facto ut scribam = scribo: Invitus facto ut recorder, I unwillingly recall. Cic.

III. With verbs and expressions denoting Fear, Anxiety, Danger: 3

Timeō, ut labōrēs sustineās, I fear that you will not endure the labors. Cic. Timēbam nē ēvenīrent ea, I feared that those things would happen. Cic. Vereor nē labōrem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic. Perīculum est nē ille tē verbīs obruat, there is danger that he will overwhelm you with words. Cic.

Note 1.—By a difference of idiom, $u\dot{t}$ must here be rendered by that not, and $n\bar{e}$ by that or lest. The Latin treats the clause as a wish or purpose.⁴

3 As metuō, timeō, vereor; perīculum est, cūra est, etc.

As opto, postulo; cēnseō, dēcernō, statuō, cēnstituō, etc.; volŏ, mālō; admoneō, moneō, horter; ōrō, rogō; imperō, praecipiō, etc.

² As ēnītor, contendo, studeo; cūrō, id agō, operam dō, etc.; facio, efficiō, impetro, cōnsequor, etc.; cōgō, impellō, moveō, etc.

⁴ The Subjunctive of Desire is manifest if we make the subordinate clause inde-

Note 2.—After verbs of fearing, $n\tilde{e}$ $n\tilde{o}n$ is sometimes used for ut—regularly so after negative clauses :

Vereor në nën possit, I fear that he will not be able. Cic.

NOTE 3 .- Verbs of FEARING admit the Infinitive in the same sense as in English:

Vereor laudăre, I fear (hesitate) to praise.1 Cic.

- 499, Peculiarities.—Expressions of Purpose present the following peculiarities:
 - 1. Ut nē, rarely ut non, is sometimes used for nē:

Praedixit, ut në lëgatës dimitterent, he charged them not to (that they should not) release the delegates. Nep. Ut plura nën dicam, not to say more (i. e., that I may not). Cic.

2. Ut is sometimes omitted, especially after volŏ, nōlō, mālō, faciō, and after verbs of directing, urging, etc. Nē is often omitted after cavĕ:

Tū velim sīs, I desire that you may be. Cic. Fāc habeās, see (make) that you have. Cic. Senātus dēcrēvit darent operam consules, the senate decreed that the consuls should see to it. Sall. Cave faciās, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

Note.—Clauses with ut or $n\bar{e}$ are sometimes inserted parenthetically in sentences:

Amīcōs, optimam vītae, ut ita dīcam, 2 suppellectilem, friends, the best treasure (furniture), so to speak, of life. Cic.

3. Clauses of Purpose sometimes pass into Substantive Clauses, which, like indeclinable nouns, are used in a variety of constructions:

Per eum stetit quominus dimicaretur, it was owing to him (stood through him) that the battle was not fought. Caes. Volo ut mihi respondeas, I wish that you would answer me. Cic. Fecit pacem his condicionibus, ne qui adficerentur exsilio, he made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile. Nep.

Note 1 .- For the Different Forms of Substantive Clauses, see 540.

Note 2.—Clauses with quiminus sometimes lose the original idea of Purpose and denote Result: 4

Non déterret sapientem mors quominus rei publicae consulat, death does not déter a voise man from deliberating for the republic. Cic.

pendent, as it was originally: I fear, so may you endure the labors, an affirmative wish; I fear, may I not increase the labor, a negative wish; hence $n\bar{\epsilon}$.

- ¹ Compare vereor laudure, 'I fear to praise,' with rereor në laudem, 'I fear that I shall praise.'
- ² The Subjunctive in this and similar clauses may be explained either as a Subjunctive of *Purpose* dependent upon a verb understood, or as a Subjunctive of *Desire*; see 483.
- ³ In the first example, the clause *quōminus dīmicūrētur* has become apparently the subject of *stetit*; in the second, *ut mihī respondeūs*, the object of *volŏ*; and in the third, nē *quī adficerentur exsiliō*, an appositive to *condiciōnibus*.
- ⁴ Such a transition from Purpose, denoting an Intended Result, to a Simple Result is easy and natural.

III. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF RESULT.

RULE XLIII.-Result.

500. The Subjunctive is used to denote Result'—

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, cur etc.:

Non is sum quī (= ut ego) hīs ūtar, I am not such a one as to use these things. Cic. Innocentia est adfectió tālis animī, quae (= ut ea) noceat nēminī, innocence is such a state of mind as injures no one, or as to injure no one. Cic. Neque quisquam fuit ubi nostrum jūs obtinērēmus, nor was there any one with whom (where) we could obtain our right. Cic. Est vēro cūr quis Jūnōmem laedere nolit, there is indeed a reason why (so that) one would be unwilling to offend Jūnō. Ovid.

II. With ut, ut non, quin:

Ita vīxit ut Athēniēnsibus esset cārissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Ita laudō, ut non pertimēscam, I so praise as not to fear. Cic. Ego in pūblicīs causīs ita sum versātus ut dēfenderim multōs, I have been so occupied in public suits that I have defended many. Cic. Nihil est tam difficile quīn (ut non) investīgārī possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter.

Note 1.— $Qu\bar{i}$ is often preceded by is, $t\bar{a}lis$, tantus, or some similar word; and ut, by ita, $s\bar{i}c$, tam, $ade\bar{o}$, tantopere, or some similar particle; see examples.

Note 2.—In Plantus and Terence ut sometimes accompanies qui:

Ita ut qui neget, so that he refuses. Ter.

Note 3.—For the Subjunctive denoting a result after quominus, see 499, 3, note 2.

501. Clauses of Result readily pass into Substantive Clauses, but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—

- I. In Subject Clauses. Thus-
- 1. With impersonal verbs signifying it happens, remains, follows, is lawful, is allowed, is distant, is, etc.: 2

Fit ut quisque delectetur, it happens that every one is delighted. Cic. Sequitur ut falsum sit, it follows that it is false. Cic. Restat ut doceam, it remains that I should show. Cic. Ex quo efficitur ut voluptes non sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the highest good. Cic.

2. With predicate nouns and adjectives:

Mos est ut nollint, it is their custom not to be willing (that they are unwilling). Cic. Proximum est, ut doceam, the next point is, that I show. Cic. Non est dubium quin beneficium sit, that it is a benefit, is not doubtful. Sen.

¹ The Subjunctive of Result is doubtless in origin a Potential Subjunctive: Non is sum qui his ūtar, 'I am not one who would use (or is likely to use) these things.' Hence this Subjunctive takes the negative $n\bar{e}n$ (ut $n\bar{e}n$) like the Potential Subjunctive, while the Subjunctive of Purpose takes the negative $n\bar{e}$ like the Subjunctive of Desire.

² As accidit, contingit, evenit, fit, restat, sequitur, licet, abest, est, etc.

Note.—For the Subjunctive with ut, with or without ne, in questions expressive of impatience or surprise, see 486, II., note.

- II. In OBJECT CLAUSES. Thus-
- 1. In clauses introduced by ut after faciō, efficiō, of the action of irrational forces:

Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom (i. e., produces that result). Cic. Splendor vester facit ut peccare sine periculo non possitis, your conspicuous position causes this result, that you can not err without peril. Cic. See 498, II.

2. In clauses introduced by quin after verbs of Doubting:

Non dubitābis quin sint beātī, you will not doubt that they are happy. Cic.

III. In Clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns:

Habet hoe virtus ut delectet, virtue has this advantage, that it delights. Cic. Est hoe vitium, ut invidia gloriae comes sit, there is this fault, that envy is the companion of glory. Nep.

Note.—For the different forms of substantive clauses, see 540.

- 502. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Result present the following peculiarities:
- Ut is sometimes omitted—regularly with oportet, generally with opput est and necesse est:

Te oportet virtus trahat, it is necessary that virtue should attract you. Cic. Causam habeat necesse est, it is necessary that it should have a cause. Cic.

2. The Subjunctive occurs with quam—with or without ut:

Liberalius quam ut posset, too freely to be able (more freely than so as to be able). Nep. Imponebat amplius quam ferre possent, he imposed more than they were able to bear.

3. After tantum abest ut, denoting result, a second ut of result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest ut laudētur, ut etiam vituperētur, so far is it from the truth (so much is wanting) that philosophy is praised, that it is even censured. Cic.

- 503. In RELATIVE CLAUSES, the Subjunctive of RESULT shows the following Special Constructions:
- I. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses to characterize an Indefinite or General Antecedent:

Quid est quod të dëlectăre possit, what is there which can delight you? Cic. Nunc dīcis aliquid quod ad rem pertineat, now you state something which belongs to the subject. Cic. Sunt quī putent, there are some who think. Cic. Nëmŏ est quī non cupiat, there is no one who does not desire. Cic.

¹ Here tam, tālis, or some such word, is often understood.

NOTE 1.—Restrictive clauses with quod, as quod sciam, 'as far as I know,' quod meminerim, 'as far as I remember,' etc., take the Subjunctive:

Non ego të, quod sciam, unquam ante hunc diem vidi, as far as I know, I have never seen you before this day. Plaut.

Note 2.—Quod, or a relative particle, $ub\check{t}$, unde, $qu\check{o}$, $c\check{u}r$, etc.. with the Subjunctive, is used after est, 'there is reason'; $n\check{o}n$ est, nihil est, 'there is no reason'; quid est, 'what reason is there?' $n\check{o}n$ $habe\check{o}$, nihil $habe\check{o}$, 'I have no reason';

Est quod gaudeüs, there is reason why you should rejoice, or so that you may. Plant. Non est quod crédis, there is no reason why you should believe. Sen. Nihil habeo, quod incusem senectutem, I have no reason why I should accuse old age. Cic. Quid est cur virtus ipsa non efficiat beatos, what reason is there why virtue itself should not make men happy? Cic.

Note 3. - The Indicative is freely used in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents:

1) In poetry 1 and late prose:

Sunt quos juvat, there are some whom it delights. Hor.

2) Even in the best prose, when the fact itself is to be made prominent:

Sunt qui non audent dicere, there are some who do not dare to speak. Cic. Multa sunt, quae dici possunt, there are many things which may be said. Cic.

II. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses—

1. After ūnus, solus, and the like:

Sapientia est una, quae maestitiam pellat, wisdom is the only thing which dispels sadness (which would dispel). Cic. Soli centum erant qui creari possent, there were only one hundred who could be appointed (such that they could be). Liv.

2. After dīgnus, indīgnus, idoneus, and aptus:

Făbulae dīgnae sunt, quae legantur, the fables are worthy to be read (that they should be read). Cie. Rūfum Caesar idōneum jūdicāverat quem mitteret, Caesar had judged Rufus a suitable person to send (whom he might send). Caes.

3. After comparatives with quam:

Damna mājōra sunt quam quae $(=ut\ ea)$ aestimārī possint, the losses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be). Liv.

504. Quin,² 'who not,' 'that not,' etc., is often used to introduce a result after negatives and interrogatives implying a negative.³ Thus—

¹ Especially in early poetry, as in Plautus and Terence.

3 As nemo, nutlus, nihil, quis ? non dubito, non dubium est; non muitum abest, paulum abest, nihil abest, quid abest? non, vix, aegre abstineo; mihi non tempero; non retineor; non, nihil praetermitto; facere non possum, fleri non potest; nun quam with a large class of verbs.

² $Qu\bar{\imath}n$ is a compound of the relative $qu\bar{\imath}$ and $n\bar{e}$, and appears to be used both as an indeclinable relative pronoun, who not, and as a relative particle, by which not, how not, etc. Some clauses with $qu\bar{\imath}n$ may perhaps be best explained as indirect questions (529, I.). $Qu\bar{\imath}n$, meaning why not? often used in independent clauses, is a compound of the interrogative $qu\bar{\imath}s$ or $qu\bar{\imath}$, and $n\bar{e}$: $Qu\bar{\imath}n$ $t\bar{u}$ $b\bar{i}e$ facis, 'why do you not do it?' Liv.

1. Quīn is often used in the sense of quī non, quae non, etc., as after nēmŏ, nūllus, nihil, quis?

Adest nemó, quin videat, there is no one present who does not see. Cic. Nemó est quin audierit, there is no one who has not heard. Cic. Quis est quin cernat, who is there who does not perceive? Cic. Nulla fuit civitas quin mitteret, there was no state which did not send. Caes. Nulla pictura fuit quin (=quam non) inspexerit, there was no painting which he did not inspect. Cic. Nullum intermisi diem, quin (=quō non or ut eō non) aliquid darem, 1 allowed no day to pass without giving something (on which I would not give something). Cic.

Note. -Quin can often be best rendered by but or by without or from with a participial noun in -ing; see the last example under 1; also the last under 2.

2. Quīn is often used in the ordinary sense of ut non:

Nemo est tam fortis quin perturbetur, no one is so brave as not to be disturbed. Caes. Nihil est tam difficile quin investigari possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter. Retineri non poterant quin tela coicerent, they could not be restrained from harling their weapons. Caes.

NOTE.—Is or id is sometimes expressed after quin:

Ninil est quin id intereat, there is nothing which does not perish. Cic.

- 3. $Qu\bar{\imath}n$ is used in the sense of $ut\ n\bar{o}n$ or of ut in subject and object clauses (501):
 - 1) With facere non possum, fiert non potest, etc., in the sense of ut non:

Facere non possum quin litteras mittam, I can not but send a letter. Cic. Effici non potest quin cos öderim, it can not be (be effected) that I should not hate them. Cic.

2) With negative expressions implying doubt and uncertainty, in the sense of ut:

Agamemnon non dubitat quin Troja sit peritura, Agamemnon does not doubt that Troy will full (perish). Cic. Non dubitari debet quin fuerint poetae, it ought not to be doubted that there were poets. Cic. Quis Ignorat quin tria genera sint, who is ignorant that there are three races? Cic.

4. Quin is sometimes used in the sense of quominus: 2

Quīn loquar haec, nūnquam mē potes deterrēre, you can never deter me from saying this. Plaut. Non deterret sapientem mors quōminus ret pūblicae consulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic. Cic. Non recūsāvit, quōminus poenam subīret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep. Neque recūsāre quīn armīs contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes.

Note.—For non quin in Causal Clauses, see 516, 2.

Pronounced as if written cojicerent; see 36, 4, with foot-note 1.

² As after verbs of *hindering*, refusing, and the like. Observe that in the examples $d\bar{e}terre\bar{i}$ and $rec\bar{u}s\bar{v}$ are used both with $qu\bar{i}n$ and with $qu\bar{v}minus$. They also admit the Subjunctive with $n\bar{e}$ or the Infinitive; see 505, II.

- 505. Construction of Special Verbs.—Some verbs admit two or more different constructions. Thus—
 - I. Dubito admits-
- 1. Quin, WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE, if it stands in a negative sentence; see 504, 3, 2).
 - 2. An Indirect Question (529, I.):

Non dubito quid putes, I do not doubt what you think. Cie. Dubito ar ponam, I doubt whether I should not place. Pop.

3. The Accusative with the Infinitive:

Quis dubitat patère Europam, who doubts that Europe is exposed? Curt.

4. The simple Infinitive, when it means to hesitate:

Non dubitem dicere, I should not hesitate to say. Cic. Dubitāmus virtūtem extendere factis, do we hesitate to extend our glory (valor) by our deeds? Verg.

- II. Verbs of hindering, opposing, refusing, and the like, admit-
- 1. The Subjunctive with ne, quin, or quominus: 2

Impedior në plūra dicam, I am prevented from saying (that I may not say) more. Cic. Sententiam në diceret recūsāvit, he refused to give an opinion. Cic. Neque recūsāre quīn armis contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes. Interclūdor dolore quōminus plura scrībam, I am prevented by sorrow from writing more. Cic.

2. The Accusative with the Infinitive, or the simple Infinitive:

Num ignöbilitäs sapientem beätum esse prohiböbit, will obscurity prevent a wise man from being happy? Cic. Quae facere recusem, which I should refuse to do. Hor.

IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences.

506. Every conditional sentence consists of two distinct parts, expressed or understood—the Condition and the Conclusion:

Si negem, mentiar, if I should deny it, I should speak fatsely.3 Cic.

RULE XLIV.-Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn.

507. Conditional sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, take—

I. The Indicative in both clauses to assume the supposed case:

¹ That is, I am inclined to think that I should place. Observe that dubito an means 'I doubt whether not'='I am inclined to think,' and dubito num, 'I doubt whether': Dubito num debeam, 'I doubt whether I ought.' Plin.

² For the use of $qu\bar{v}n$, see 504. Ne and $qu\bar{v}minus$ may follow either affirmatives or negatives.

³ Here sī negem is the condition, and mentiar, the conclusion,

Sī spīritum dūcit, vīvit, if he breathes, he is alive. Cic. Sī tot exempla virtūtis non movent, nihil unquam movēbit, if so many examples of valor do not move (you), nothing will ever move (you). Liv.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Dies deficiat, si velim causam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause. Cic. Improbe fecers, nisi menueris, you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Plūribus verbīs ad tē scrīberem, sī rēs verba dēsīderāret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words. Cic. Sī voluisset, dimicāsset, if he had wished, he would have fought. Nep.

 Two clauses without any conjunction sometimes have the force of a conditional sentence:

Negat quis, negō, does any one deny, I deny. Ter. Rogēs mē, nihil respondeam, ask me, I shall make no reply. Cic. Tū māgnam partem, sineret dolor, habērēs, you would have had a large share, had grief permitted. Verg. Lacēsse; jam vidēbis furentem, provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic. 2

2. A condition is sometimes introduced by the relative quī, quae, etc. = sī is, sī quis, sī quī, etc.:

Qui secum loqui poterit, sermonem alterius non requiret, if any one (lit., he who) shall be able to converse with himself, he will not need the conversation

¹ See 510, note 2.

² From these examples it is manifest that a conditional particle is not an essential part of a conditional sentence. Originally the two clauses, the condition and the conclusion, were independent, and the mood in each was determined by the ordinary principles which regulate the use of moods in principal clauses; see 483; 485. Hence the Indicative was used in treating of facts, and the Subjunctive or Imperative in all other cases. Si, probably the Locative case of a pronoun, meaning (1) at that time or in that manner, and (2) at any time or in any manner, has nothing whatever to do with the mood, but merely denotes that the conclusion is connected with the condition. Thus: negat, nego, 'he denies (i. e., assume that he denies), I deny'; sī negat, negā, 'he denies at some time, then I deny'; dies deficiat, si velim, etc., 'let me wish (Subjunctive of Desire) at any time, etc., then the day would fail me.' The Subjunctive in conditions is a Subjunctive of Desire with nearly the force of the Imperative, which may indeed be used for it when sī is omitted, as lacesse, 'provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him).' In conclusions the Subjunctive is generally potential, as dies deficiat, 'the day would fail,' but sometimes it is the Subjunctive of Desire, for which the Imperative may be substituted; as, peream, sī poterunt, 'may I perish if they shall be able'; sī peccāvī, īgnōsce, 'if I have erred, pardon me.' See Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 70-74; 171-182.

of another. Cic. Errat longe, qui credat, etc., he greatly errs who supposes, etc. (i. e., if any one supposes, he greatly errs). Ter. Haec qui videat, none cogutur confiteri, etc., if any one should see these things, would he not be compelled to admit, etc.? Cic.

3. A condition is sometimes introduced by cum:

Ea cum dīxissent, quid respondērēs, if (when) they had said that, what should you reply? Cic.

Note 1.—The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with nisi vērō, nisi forte, with the Indicative, and with quasi, quasi vērō, with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:

Nisi forte insanit, unless perhaps he is insane. Cic. Quasi vērō necesse sit, as if

indeed it were necessary. Caes.

NOTE 2.—Ita-sī, 'so-if,' means only—if. Sī quidem, 'if indeed,' sometimes has nearly the force of since:

Hôc ita jūstum est, sī est voluntārium, this is just only if (on condition that) it is voluntary. Cic. Antīquissimum est genus počtārum, sī quidem Homērus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, the class of poets is very ancient, since Homer lived before the founding of Rome. Cic.

Note 3.-Nisi or nī, 'if not,' is sometimes best rendered but or except:

Nescio, nisi hoc video, I know not, but (except that) I observe this. Cic.

Note 4.—Nisi sī means except if, unless perhaps, unless:

Nisi sī quī scrīpsit, unless some one has written. Cic.

Note 5. - For sī to be rendered to see if, to see whether, etc., see 529, 1, note 1.

Note 6.—For quod sī, quod nī, quod nisi, see 453, 6.

Note 7.—The condition may be variously supplied, as by a participle, by the ablative absolute, or by the oblique case of a noun:

Non potestis, voluptate oumia dirigentes (= sī dīrēgitis), retinere virtūtem, you can not retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure. Cie. Rēctē factō (= sī rēctē factom erit), laus proponitur, if it is (shall be) vvll done, praise is offered. Cie. Nēmō sine spē (= nisi spem habēret) sē offerret ad mortem, no one without a hope (if he had not a hope) vould expose himself to death. Cie.

Note 8.—For Conditional Sentences in the Indirect Discourse, see 527.

508. First Form.—Conditional sentences with the *In dicative in both clauses*, assuming the supposed case as *real*, may base upon it any statement which would be admissible if the supposed case were a known fact:

Sī haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic. Sī non licēbat, non necesse erat, if it was not lawful, it was not necessary. Cic. Sī vīs, dabō tibī testēs, if you wish, I will furnish you witnesses. Cic. Plūra scrībam, sī plūs otī habuero, I will write more if I shall have (shall have had) more leisure. Cic. Dolorem sī non potero frangere, occultābo, if I shall not be able to overcome sorrow, I shall conceal it. Cic. Parvī sunt forīs arma, nisi est cōnsilium domī, arms are of little value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. Sī domī sum, etc.; sīn¹ forīs sum, etc., if I am at home, etc.; but if I am abroad, etc. Plaut. Nī putō, if I do not think. Cic.

¹ $S\bar{\imath}n$ from $s\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{e}$, 'if not,' 'if on the contrary,' 'but if,' properly introduces a condition in contrast with another condition expressed or implied. Thus, $s\bar{\imath}n$ for is is in contrast with $s\bar{\imath}$ dom $\bar{\imath}$, and means but if abroad.

- The Condition is generally introduced, when affirmative, by sī, with or without other particles, as quidem, modo, etc., and when negative, by sī nōn, nisi, nī.
- 2. The Time may be present, past, or future, but it need not be the same in both clauses. Thus the Present or the Future Perfect in the condition is often followed by the Future, as in the third and fourth examples.¹
- 3. Sī nēn and nisi are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly sī nēn introduces the negative condition on which the conclusion depends, while nisi introduces a qualification or an exception. Thus, in the s- cond example above, the meaning is, if it was not lawful, it follows that it was not necessary; while in the fourth the meaning is, arms are of little value abroad, except when there is wisdom at home.
- 4. The CONCLUSION irrespective of the condition may assume a considerable variety of form. Thus:

Redargue më si mentior, refute me if I speak falsely. Cic. Moriar, ni putö, may I die, if I do not think. Cic. Quid timeam, si beatus futurus sum, why should I fear if I am going to be happy? Cic. Si quid habës certius, velim 2 seire, if you have any information (anything more certain), I should like to know it. Cic.

- 5. GENERAL TRUTHS may be expressed conditionally-
 - 1) By the Indicative in both clauses, as in the sixth example under 508.
- 2) By the Second Person of the Subjunctive used of an indefinite you (= any one) in the condition, with the Indicative in the conclusion:

Memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceas, the memory is impaired, if you do not (one does not) exercise it. Cic. Nulla est excusatio peccuti, si amici causa peccaveris, it is no excuse for a fault, that you have committed it for the sake of a friend. Cic.

509. Second Form.—Conditional sentences with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses represent the condition as possible:

Hace si tecum patria loquatur, nonne impetrare debeat, if your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request? Cic. Improbe feeeris, nisi monueris. you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic. See also 507, II.

NOTE 1.—The Time denoted by these tenses, the *Present* and the *Perfect*, is generally either present or future, and the difference between the two is that the former regards the action in its *progress*, the latter in its *completion*. Thus, *loquātur*, 'should speak' (now or at any future time); so of *dēbeat*; but *fēcerīs*, though referring to the same time as *loquātur*, regards the action as *completed*.³

Note 2.—The Present Subjunctive is occasionally used in conditional sentences, even when the condition is in itself contrary to fact:

- 1 A conditional sentence with the Future Perfect in the condition and the Future in the conclusion, as plūna scrībam, sī plūn ôtiī habuerō, corresponds to the Greek with ἐἀν or ἄν with the Aorist Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion; as, νέος ἄν πονήσης, γῆρας ἔξεις εὐθαλές, if you will labor while young, you will have a prosperous old age.
- ² Observe that in each of these examples the mood in the conclusion is entirely independent of the condition. Thus, *redargue* is a command; *moriar*, a prayer, Subjunctive of Desire; *quid timeam*, a deliberative question (484, V.); and *velim*, a Potential Subjunctive (486, note 1).
- 3 As the Present Subjunctive in point of time is very closely related to the Future Indicative in conditional sentences, so the Perfect Subjunctive is very closely related to the Future Perfect Indicative, though it may refer to past time.

Tũ sĩ hĩc sĩs, aliter sentiās, if you were I (if you were in my place), you would think differently. Ter.

Note 3.—When dependent upon an historical tense, the Present and Perfect are of course generally changed to the Imperfect and Pluperfect, by the law for Sequence of Tenses (490):

Metuit ne, si îret, retraheretur, he feared lest, if he should go, he would be brought back. Liv.

510. Third Form.—Conditional sentences with the *Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses* represent the supposed case as *contrary to fact*, and simply state what would have been the result if the condition had been fulfilled:

Sapientia non expeteretur, sī nihil efficeret, wisdom would not be sought (as it is), if it accomplished nothing. Cic. Sī optima tenere possemus, haud sanc consilio egeremus, if we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed need counsel. Cic. Sī voluisset, dīmicasset, if he had wished, he would have fought. Nep. Nūnquam abīsset, nisi sibi viam mūnīvisset, he would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way. Cic. See also 507. III.

Note 1.—Here the *Imperfect* generally relates to present 1 time, as in the first and second examples; the *Pluperfect* to past time, as in the third and fourth examples.

NOTE 2.—The Imperfect sometimes relates to past time, especially when it expresses a continued action, or is accompanied by any word denoting past time:

Nec. si cuperës, tibi id facere licuisset, nor would you have been permitted to do it, if you had desired. Cic. Num Opimium, si tum essës, temerarium civem putarës, would you have thought Opimius an audacious citizen if you had lived at that time? Cic.

- 511. A CONCLUSION of the FIRST FORM is sometimes combined with a CONDITION of the SECOND OF THIRD FORM. Thus—
- 1. The *Indicative* is often thus used in the conclusion (1) to denote a *general truth*, and (2) to emphasize a *fact*, especially with a condition introduced by nisi or $n\bar{\imath}$:²

Turpis excūsātiō est, sī quis fateātur, etc., it is a base excuse, if one admits, etc. Cic. Intrāre, sī possim, castra hostium volō, I wish to enter the camp of the enemy, if I am able. Liv. Certāmen aderat, nī Fabius rem expedīsset, a contest was at hand, but Fabius (lit., if Fabius had not) adjusted the affair. Liv. Nec vēnī, nisi fāta locum dedissent, nor should I have come, had not the fates assigned the place. Verg.

¹ This use of the Imperfect to denote present time was developed from the ordinary force of the Subjunctive tenses. Thus the Present denotes that which is likely to be, the Imperfect that which was likely to be, and so by implication that which is not. Compare fuit in the sense of was, but is not, 471, 1, 2).

² Here the condition merely introduces a qualification or an exception; see 508,3

³ The force of the Indicative can not be easily shown in a translation, but the Latin conception is, *I have not come without the divine guidance* (expressed in the condition).

Note 1.—The Future Indicative is sometimes used in the conclusion because of its near relationship in force to the Present Subjunctive: 1

Si mittat, quid respondebis, if he should send, what answer shall you give? Lucr. Nec si cupias, licebit, nor, if you should desire it, will it be allowed. Cic.

NOTE 2.—In a negative conclusion with a negative condition, the verb possum is generally in the Indicative: 2

Neque amientiam tueri possumus, nisi amiess diligamus, nor should we be able to preserve friendship, if we should not love our friends. Cic.

NOTE 3.—The Historical Tenses of verbs denoting Duty, Propriety, Necessity, Ability, and the like, in the conclusion of conditional sentences, are generally in the Indicative:

Quem, sī ūlla in tē pietās esset, colere dēbēbās, whom you ought to have honored (and would have honored), if there were any filial affection in you. Cie. Vix castra, sī oppūgnārētur, tūtārī poterat, he was hardly able to defend the camp, if he should be attacked. Liv. Dēlēri exercitus potuit, sī persecūti victorēs essent, the army might have been destroyed (and would have been), if the victors had pursued. Liv.

Note 4.—The *Historical Tenses* of the Indicative of still other verbs are sometimes similarly used when accompanied by paene or prope:

Pons iter paene hostibus dedit, ni ūnus vir suisset, the bridge almost furnished a passage to the enemy (and would have surnished it), had there not been one man. Liv.

2. The *Periphrastic Forms* in **rus** and **dus** in the conclusion of conditional sentences are generally in the Indicative: ³

Quid sī hostēs veniant, factūrī estis, what shall you do if the enemy should eome? Liv. Sī quaerātur, indicandum est, if inquiry should be made, information must be given. Cie. Relictūrī agrōs erant, nisi litterās mīsisset, they would have left their lands, had he not sent a letter. Cic. Quid futūrum fuit, sī plēbs agitārī coepta esset, what would have been the result, if the plebeians had begun to be agitated? Liv. Sī vērum respondēre vellēs, haec erat dicenda, if you wished to answer truly, this should have been said. Cic. Sī morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed, you must all have perished. Liv.

Note.—When the Perfect Indicative in the conclusion with the Subjunctive in the condition is brought into a construction which requires the Subjunctive, the tense remains unchanged, irrespective of the tense of the principal verb:

Adcō est mopiā coāctus ut, nisi timuisset, Galliam repetītūrus fuerit,5 he was so

- 1 See 479, with foot-note 3. A conditional sentence with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion, corresponds to the Greek ἐαν with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion: τοῦτο εὰν σκοπῆτε, ενρήσετε, if you examine this, you will find.
- ² Here, too, the use of the Indicative grows out of the relationship between the meaning of possum, denoting ability, and that of the Potential Subjunctive denoting possibility.
- ³ The Indicative is here explained by the close relationship between the ordinary meaning of the Subjunctive, and that of the forms in rus and dus denoting that something is about to be done or ought to be done.
 - 4 Lit., were about to leave, and so would have left, had he not, etc.
- 6 Here repetitūrus fuerit is in the Subjunctive, not because it is in a conditional sentence, but because it is the Subjunctive of Result with ut: but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.

pressed by want that, if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul. Liv. Haud dubium fuit, quin nisi firmāta extrēma āgminis fuissent, ingēns accipienda clādēs fuerit, there was no doubt that, had not the rear of the line been made strong, a great disaster must have been sustained. Liv. Quaeris quid potuerit amplius assequī, sī Scīpiōnis fuisset filius, you ask what more he could have attained, if he had been the son of Scipto. Cic.

512. A CONCLUSION of the THIRD FORM (510) is sometimes combined with a CONDITION of the SECOND FORM (509):

Sī tēcum loquantur, quid respondērēs, if they should speak with you, what answer would you give ? Cic.

RULE XLV.—Conditional Clauses with dum, modo, āc si, ut sī, etc.

513. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive—

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum nē, modo nē, dummodo nē, 'if only not,' 'provided that not': 2

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains. Cic. Dum res maneant, verba fingant, let them make words, if only the facts remain. Cic. Dummodo repellat periculum, provided he may avert danger. Cic. Dum në tibi videar, nën labërë, provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care. Cic.

II. With āc sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habēbō, āc sī scrīpsissēs, I shall regard it just as if (i. e., as I should if) you had written. Cic. Jacent, tanquam omnīnō sine animō sint, they lie as if (i. e., as they would lie if) they were entirely without mind. Cic. Quam sī vīxerit tēcum, as if he had lived with you. Cic. Miserior es, quam sī oculōs nōn habērēs, you are more unhappy than (you would be) if you had not eyes. Cic. Crūdēlitātem, velut sī adesset, horrēbant, they shuddered at his cruelty as (they would) if he were present. Cacs. Ut sī in suam rem aliēna convertant, as if they should appropriate others' possessions to their own use. Cic. Tanquam audiant, as if they may hear. Sen.

Note 1.—In this form of conditional sentences, the $Present~^3$ or Imperfect is used of present time, and the $Perfect~^3$ or Pluperfect of past time; see examples above.

When not used in conditions, these conjunctions often admit the Indicative: Dum leges vigebant, while the laws were in force. Cic.

² This Subjunctive is best explained as the Subjunctive of Desire, as indicated by the negative $n\bar{e}$ (483, 3). Thus, modo permaneat industria, 'only let industry remain'; dum $n\bar{e}$ tibl videar, 'let me not meanwhile seem so to you.' After dum and dummodo the Subjunctive may perhaps be explained as Potential, but the negative $n\bar{e}$ renders such an explanation very doubtful.

³ The English idiom would lead us to expect only the *Imperfect* and *Pluperfect*, as under 510; but the Latin often regards the condition as *possible*, and thus uses the *Present* and *Perfect*, as under 509.

Note 2.—Ceu and sicuti are sometimes used like āc sī, ut sī, etc.:

Ceu bella forent, as if there were wars. Verg. Sicuti audiri possent, as if they could be heard. Sall.

V. Moods in Concessive Clauses.

514. A concessive clause is one which concedes or admits something, generally introduced in English by though or although:

Quamquam itinere fessi erant, tamen procedunt, although they were weary with the journey, they still (yet) advanced. Sall.

Note.—The concessive particle is sometimes omitted: Sed habeat, tamen, etc., but grant that he has it, yet, etc. Cic.

RULE XLVI.-Moods in Concessive Clauses.

515. Concessive clauses take—

I. Generally the *Indicative* in the best prose, when introduced by quamquam:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nunquam dicunt, though they understand, they never speak. Cic. Quamquam festinas, non est mora longa, though you are in haste, the delay is not long. Hor.

- II. The *Indicative* or *Subjunctive*, when introduced by etsī, etiamsī, tametsī, or sī, like conditional clauses with sī. Thus—
 - 1. The Indicative is used to represent the supposed case as a fact:

Gaudeō, etsī nihil sciŏ quod gaudeam, I rejoice, though I know no reason why I should rejoice. Plaut.

2. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case as possible:

Etsī nihil habeat in sē glōria, tamen virtūtem sequitur, though glory may not possess anything in itself, yet it follows virtue. Cic.

3. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Etiamsī mors oppetenda esset, domī māllem, even if death ought to be met, I should prefer to meet it at home. Cic.

III. The Subjunctive, when introduced by licet, $quam-v\bar{\imath}s$, ut, $n\bar{e}$, cum, or the relative $qu\bar{\imath}$:

¹ Concessive clauses bear a close resemblance to conditional clauses both in form and in use. Si optimum est, 'if it is best,' is a condition; etsī optimum est, 'even if (or though) it is best,' is a concession; the one assumes a supposed case, the other admits it. The Subjunctive in concessive clauses is in general best explained in the same way as in conditional clauses; see 507, 1, foot-note 2.

² In origin *licet* is simply the impersonal verb of the same form, and the Subjunctive

Licet irrīdeat, plūs tamen ratio valēbit, though he may deride, reason will yet avail more. Cic. Non tū possīs, quamvīs excellās, vou would not be able, although you excel. Cic. Ut dēsint vīrēs, tamen est iaudanda voluntās, though the strength jails, still the will should be approved. Ovid. Nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, though pain may not be the greatest evil, it is certainly an evil. Cic. Cum domī dīvitiae adfluerent, fuēre tamen cīvēs, etc., though wealth abounded at home, there were yet citizens, etc. Sall. Absolvite Verrem, quī (cum is) sē fateātur pecūniās cēpisse, acquit Verres, though he confesses (who may confess) that he has accepted money. Cic.

NOTE 1 .- Quamquam takes the Subjunctive-

1) When the thought, irrespective of the concessive character of the clause, requires that mood:

Quamquam epulis careat senectūs, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic.

2) Sometimes, even in the best prose, apparently without any special reason:

Quamquam në id quidem suspicionem habuerit, though not even that gave rise to any suspicion. Cic.

3) In poetry and in late prose, the Subjunctive with quamquam is not uncommon. In Tacitus it is the prevailing construction:

Quamquam invicti essent, although they were invincible. Verg. Quamquam plerique ad senectam pervenirent, although very many reached old age. Tac.

Note 2.—Quamquam and etsi sometimes have the force of yet, but yet, and yet:

Quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak? Cic. Etsi tibi assentior, and yet I assent to you. Cic.

NOTE 3.—Quamvis in the best prose takes the Subjunctive almost without exception, generally also in Livy and Nepos; but in poetry and in late prose it often admits the Indicative:

Erat dignităte regiă, quamvis cărebat nomine, he was of royal dignity, though he was without the name. Nep.

Note $4.-Qu\bar{\imath}$ and cum, used concessively, generally take the Indicative in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes even in classical prose:

Audés praedicăre id, domî te esse nunc qui hic ades, do you dare to assert this, that you are now at home, although you are here present? Plaut. Cum tabulas emunt, tamen nequeunt, though they purchase paintings, they are yet unable. Sall. Cum Sicilia vexata est, tamen, though Sicily was disturbed, yet. Cic.

NOTE 5.—Ut—sīc, or ut—itu, 'though—yet' (lit., 'as—so'), involving comparison rather than concession, does not require the Subjunctive:

Ut a proclifs quictem habuerant, ita non cessaverant ab opere, though (lit., as) they had had rest from battles, yet (lit., so) they had not ceased from work. Liv.

NOTE 6.—Quanvis and quantumvis, meaning 'as much as you please,' 'however much,' may accompany licet with the Subjunctive:

Non possis tu, quantumvis licet excellás, you would not be able, however much you may excel. Cic.

clause which follows, developed from Result (501, I.), is its subject. Thus, in licet irrideat (lit., 'that he may deride is allowed'), irrideat is according to the Latin conception the subject of licet. Quam-vis, compounded of quam, 'as,' and vis, 'you wish,' means as you wish; thus, quamvis excellis means literally excel as you wish (i. e., as much as you please). The Subjunctive with quamvis, ut, nê, and qui, is the Subjunctive of Desire; that with cum was developed from the temporal clause; see 521.

VI. Moods in Causal Clauses.

RULE XLVII.-Moods with quod, quia, quoniam, quando.

- 516. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quando, generally take—
- I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority:

Quoniam supplicătio decreta est, celebratote illos dies, since a thanks-giving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic. Gaude quod spectant te, rejoice that (because) they behold you. Hor.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority;²

Socrates accusatus est, quod corrumperet juventütem, Socrates was accused, because (on the alleged ground that) he corrupted the youth. Quint. Aristides nonne expulsus est patria, quod justus esset, was not Aristides banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just? Cic.

1. By a special construction, the verb introducing a reason on another's authority is sometimes put in the Infinitive, depending upon a verb of saying or thinking in the Subjunctive:

Quod se bellum gestures dicerent (= quod bellum gesture essent, ut dicebant), because they were about, as they said, to wage war. Caes.

Note.—In the same way the Subjunctive of a verb of saying or thinking may be used in a relative clause to introduce the sentiment of another person:

Ementiendo quae se audisse dicerent, by reporting falsely what they had heard (what they said they had heard). Sall.

2. Non Quō ero.—Non quō, non quod, non quōn, rarely non quia, also quam quod, etc., are used with the Subjunctive to denote an alleged reason in distinction from the true reason:

Non quo haberem quod scriberem, not because (that) I had anything to write. Cic. Non quod dolpant, not because they are pained. Cic. Quia ne-

¹ Quod and quia are in origin relative pronouns in the neuter. Thus: gaudē quod spectant $t\bar{e}$, 'rejoice that (as to that) they behold you.' Quoniam = quom-jam, 'when now,' and quandō = quam-dō $(d\bar{v}=di\bar{e})$, 'on which day,' 'when.' $D\bar{v}$ is probably from the same root as dum; see p. 145, foot-note 1.

² Observe that causal clauses with the Indicative state a fact, and at the same time present that fact as a reason or cause, as in the first example, but that causal clauses with the Subjunctive simply assign a reason without asserting any fact. Thus, in the examples under II., quad corrumpert juventiatem does not state that Socrates corrupted the youth, but simply indicates the charge made against him; nor does quad justus esset state that Aristides was just, but simply indicates the alleged ground of his banishment. For the development of the Subjunctive in causal clauses, see p. 267, foot-note 3.

quiverat quam quod ignoraret, because he had been unable, rather than because he did not know. Liv.

Note.—Clauses with quod sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of remark:

Quod me Agamemnonem aemuläri putäs, falleris, in thinking (as to the fact that you think) that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken. Nep.

RULE XLVIII.—Causal Clauses with cum and qui.

517. Causal clauses with cum and $qu\bar{i}$ generally take the Subjunctive, in writers of the best period:

Necesse est, cum sint dii, animantes esse, since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. Cic. Cum vita metus plena sit, since life is full of fear. Cic. Quae cum ita sint, perge, since these things are so, proceed. Cic. Ō vis vēritātis, quae (cum ea) sē dēfenau, O the force of truth, since it defends itself. Cic. Ō fortūnāte adulescens, qui (cum tū) tuae virtūtis Homērum praeconem invēneris, O fortunate youth, since you (lit., who) have obtained Homer as the herald of your vator. Cic.

1. In early Latin, especially in Plautus and Terence, the Indicative is the prevailing mood in causal clauses with cum and $qu\bar{\imath}$, though the Subjunctive is not uncommon with $qu\bar{\imath}:$

Quom² facere officium scīs tuum, since you know how to do your duty. Plaut. Quom hoe non possum, since I have not this power. Ter. Qui advenistī, since you have come. Plaut. Tuis qui virtūtes sciam, since I know your virtues. Plaut. Qui neminem videam, since I see no one. Ter.

2. Clauses with either cum or qui admit the Indicative in all writers, when the statement is viewed as a fact:

Habeō senectūtī grātiam, quae mihī sermōnis aviditātem auxit, I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation. Cic. Grātu-

¹ Clauses with cum, whether causal or temporal, illustrate the gradual extension of the use of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses. Originally they took the Indicative, unless the thought irrespective of the causal or temporal character of the clause required the Subjunctive. Thus the Ciceronian sentence, Necesse est, cum sint dii, animantes esse, 'since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings,' would in early Latin have been, Necesse est, cum sunt dii, animantes esse, and would have contained two distinct statements, viz., there are gods, and it is necessary that there should be living beings. But in time the causal clause lost so much of its original force as a separate statement, and became so entirely dependent upon the principal clause, as to be little more than an adverbial modifier of the latter, like the Ablative of Cause (413) in a simple sentence. The causal clause then took the Subjunctive, and the sentence as a whole made but one distinct statement, which may be approximately rendered, in view of (because of) the existence of the gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. In the same way, temporal clauses with cum sometimes became little more than adverbial modifiers of the principal verb; see 521, II., 1, with foot-note, and 521, II., 2, with foot-note. For a special treatment of these clauses, see Hoffmann. 'Die Con struction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax von Quom.'

^{*} See 311, 1, with foot-note 4.

lor tibi, cum tantum vales, I congratulate you that (in view of the fact that) you have so great influence. Cic.

- 8. When a conjunction accompanies the relative, the mood varies with the conjunction. Thus—
 - 1) The Subjunctive is generally used with cum, quippe, ut, utpote:

Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Quippe qui blandiatur, since he flatters (as one who flatters). Cic. Ut qui coloni essent, since they were colonists. Cic.

Note.—But the Indicative is sometimes used to give prominence to the fact. In Sallust the Indicative is the regular construction after quippe:

Quippe qui regnum invaserat, as he had laid hold of the kingdom. Sall.

2) The Indicative is generally used with quia, quoniam:

Quae quia certa esse non possunt, since these things can not be sure. Cic. Qui quoniam intellegi noluit, since he did not wish to be understood. Cic.

VII. Moods in Temporal Clauses.1

RULE XLIX.-Temporal Clauses with postquam, etc.

518. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, ubĭ, ut, simul atque, etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used:

Postquam vīdit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc. Caes. Ubi certiōrēs factī sunt, when they were informed. Caes. Id ut audīvit, as he heard this. Nep. Postquam vident, after they saw.³ Sall. Postquam nox aderat, when night was at hand. Sall.

Note 1.—The tense in these clauses is generally the Perfect or the Historical Present, but sometimes the Descriptive Imperfect; 4 see examples above; also 471 4.

NOTE 2.—The Pluperfect Indicative is sometimes used—

1) Especially to denote the result of a completed action:

Posteāquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul.⁵ Cic. Annō tertiō postquam profugerat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

2) To denote repeated action: 6

Ut quisque vēnerat, solēbat, etc., as each one came (lit., had come), he was wont, etc. Cic.

Note 3.—Postrīdiē quam is used like postquam:

Postridie quam tu es profectus, on the day after you started. Cic.

1. In Livy and the late historians, the Pluperfect or Imperfect Subjunctive is often used to denote repeated action: 6

- 1 On $\it Temporal\ Clauses$, see Hoffmann, 'Die Construction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax yon Quom.'
 - 2 Or post quam and posteā quam.
 - 3 See 467, III., with 1.
 - 4 See 469, I.
 - 5 And was accordingly at the time a man of consular rank.
- 6 In this case the Imperfect Indicative is generally used in the principal clause, as to the example here given.

Id ubi dixisset, hastam mittebat, whenever he had said that, he hurled (was wont to hurl) a spear. Liv.

Note.—As a rare exception, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive occur after postquam or $poste\~aquam$:

Posteaquam aedificasset classes, after he had built fleets. Cic.

2. When the verb is in the second person singular to denote an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, the Subjunctive is generally used in temporal clauses:

Nolunt ubǐ velīs, ubǐ nolīs cupiunt, they are unwilling when you wish it (when one wishes it), when you are unwilling they desire it. Ter. Prusquam incipiás, consulto opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation. Sall.

RULE L.—Temporal Clauses with dum, etc.2

519. I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of while, as long as, take the *Indicative*:

Haec fēcī, dum lieuit, I did this while it was allowed. Cic. Quoad vīxit, as long as he lived. Nep. Dum lēgēs vigēbant, as long as the laws were in force. Cic. Dōnec eris fēlīx, as long as you shall be prosperous. Ov. Quamdiū in provinciā fuērunt, as long as they were in the province Cic.

- II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—
- 1. The *Indicative*, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Dēlīberā hoc, dum ego redeō, consider this until I return. Ter. Donec rediit, until he returned. Liv. Quoad renuntiātum est, until it was (actually) announced. Nep.

2. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Different, dum defervescat îra, let them defer it till their anger cools (i. e., that it may cool). Cic. Exspectes dum decat, you are waiting till he speaks (i. e., that he may speak). Cic. Ea continebis quoad te videam, you will keep them till I see you. Cic.

Note 1.—In the poets and the historians, dum is sometimes used with the Imperfect Subjunctive, and donec with the Imperfect and Pluperfect, like cum in narration; ³

Dum ea gererentur, bellum concitur, while these things were in progress (were done), a war was commenced. Liv. Nihil trepidābant donec poute agerentur, they did not fear at all while they were driven on the bridge. Liv. Donec missī essent, until they had been sent. Liv.

Note 2.—Donec, in Tacitus. generally takes the Subjunctive:

¹ But the text in these cases is somewhat uncertain.

² See p. 291, foot-note 1.

³ See p. 295, foot-note 1.

Rneaus servat violentiam cursus, donec Oceano miscentur, the Rhine preserves the rapidity of its current till it mingles with the ocean. Tac.

RULE LI.—Temporal Clauses with antequam and priusquam.

- 520. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam 1—*
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put—
- 1. In the *Indicative*, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic. Antequam in Siciliam vēnī, before I came into Sicily. Cic. Antequam cōgnōverō, before I shall have ascertained. Cic. Nec prius respēxī quam vēnīmus, nor did I look back until we arrived. Verg.

2. In the *Subjunctive*, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Antequam de re publica decam, exponam consilium, I will set forth my plan before I (can) speak of the republic (i. e., preparatory to speaking of the republic). Cic. Non prius duces dimittunt, quam ist concessum, they did not dismiss the leaders till it was granted. Caes. Priusquam incipias, consulto opus est, before you begin there is need of deliberation (i. e., as preparatory to beginning). Sall. Tempestas minatur, antequam surgat, the tempest threatens, before it rises. Sen. Collem, priusquam sentiatur, communit, he fortified the hill before it was (could be) perceived. Caes.

II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive:

Often written ante quam and prius quam, sometimes with intervening words between ante or prius and quam. See also p. 291, footnote 1.

² The Future is used only in early Latin, as in Plautus and Cato.

³ Remember that the Future is supplied in the Subjunctive by the Present; see 496.

⁴ Here the temporal clause involves purpose as well as time. Antequam dicam is nearly equivalent to ut posteā dicam: 'I will set forth my views, that I may afterward speak of the republic.'

⁵ Remember also that in temporal clauses the second person singular with an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, is generally in the Subjunctive; see 518, 2.

⁶ Potential Subjunctive; see 486, III.

⁷ The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses is not always to be referred to the same principle. Sometimes, like the Subjunctive after dum, it is best explained as the Subjunctive of Purpose, as in the first example, and sometimes like the Subjunctive of the historical tenses after cum; see p. 295, foot-note 1.

Non prius egressus est quam rex eum in fidem reciperet, he did not withdraw until the king took him under his protection. Nep. Priusquam peteret consulatum, insanit, he was insane before he sought the consulship. Liv. Prius visus est Caesar, quam fama perferretur, Caesar appeared before any tidings were brought. Caes. Antequam urbem caperent, before they took the city. Liv. Priusquam de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi, before they were able to hear of my approach, I went into Macedonia. Cic. Paucis ante diebus, quam Syracusae caperentur, a few days before Syracuse was taken. Liv.

NOTE 1.—When the principal clause is negative and contains an historical tense, the temporal clause generally takes the Perfect Indicative, as in the last example under I., 1; but it sometimes takes the Subjunctive, as in the first example under II.

Note 2 — Pridie quam takes the same moods as priusquam:

Pridië quam scripsī, the day before I wrote. Cic. Pridië quam perīret, somniāvit, he had a dream on the day before he died. Suct.

NOTE 3.—For the Subjunctive of the second person with an indefinite subject, see 518, 2.

RULE LII.—Temporal Clauses with cum.

521. In temporal clauses with cum '_

I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the *Indicative*:

Cum verba faciunt, mājōrēs suōs extollunt, when they speak, they extol their ancestors. Sall. Cum quiēscunt, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Librōs, cum est ōtium, legere soleō, when there is teisure, I am uont to read books. Cic. Ad tē scrībam, cum plūs ōtiī nactus erō, I shall write to you when I shall have obtained more leisure. Cic. Omnia sunt incerta cum ā jūre discessum est, all things are uncertain when one has departed from the right. 2 Cic.

II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put-

1. In the *Indicative*, when the temporal clause asserts AN HISTORICAL FACT:

Pāruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Nondum profectus erat, cum haec gerēbantur, he had not yet started when these things took place. Liv. Tum cum rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant, Rōmae fidēs concidit, then, when many had lost great fortunes, credit fell at Rome. Cic. Cum quaepiam cohors impetum fēcerat, hostēs refugiēbant, whenever any cohort made (had made) an attack, the enemy retreated. Caes.

See p. 290, foot-note 1, with the works of Hoffmann and Lübbert there mentioned.
 Discessum est is an Impersonal Passive, a departure has been made; see 301, 1.

³ Here the temporal clause not only defines the *time* of *pāruit*, but also makes a distinct and separate statement, viz., *it was necessary*; see p. 295, foot-note 1; also, p. 290, foot-note 1.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action:

Cum epistulam complicarem, tabellarii vēnērunt, while I was fo'ding the letter (i. e., during the act), the postmen came.\(^1\) Cic. Cum ex Aegyptō reverterētur, dēcessit, he died while he was returning (during his return) from Egypt. Nep. Cum dīmicaret, occīsus est, when he engaged in battle, he was slain. Nep. Zēnōnem, cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam frequenter, I often heard Zeno when I was at Athens. Cic. Cum trīduī viam perfēcisset, nūntiātum est, etc., when he had accomplished a journey of three days, it was announced, etc. Caes. Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, matūrat ab urbe proficiscī, when this was (had been) announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city. Caes.

- 1) Cum with the force of a relative after tempus, aetās, and the like, takes-
- (1) Sometimes the Indicative, to state a fact:

Fuit tempus, cum homines vagabantur, there was a time when men led a mandering life. Cic.

Note.—Cum is sometimes thus used without tempus, etc.:

Fuit cum hộc đĩci poterat, there was a time when this could be said. Liv.

(2) Generally the Subjunctive, to characterize the period:2

Id saeculum cum plēna Graecia počtārum esset, that age when (such that) Greece was full of poets. Cic. Erit tempus, cum dēsideres, the time will come, when you will desire. Cic.

Note 1 .- Cum is sometimes thus used without tempus, etc. :

Fuit cum arbitrarer, there was a time when I thought. Cic.

Note 2 — Meminī cum, 'I remember when,' generally takes the Indicative, but audio cum, video cum, and animadverto cum, generally the Subjunctive:

Memini cum mihi desipere videbare, I remember when you seemed to me to be un wise. Cic. Audivi cum diceret, I heard him say (lit., when he said). Cic.

2) Cum, meaning from the time when, since, takes the Indicative:

Centum anni sunt, cum dictator fuit, it is one hundred years since he was dictator. Cic.

NOTE 1.—Cum...tum, in the sense of 'not only...but also,' 'both...and,' generally takes the Indicative in both clauses, but in the sense of 'though...yet,' the Subjunctive in the first clause and the Indicative in the second:

Cum antea distinebar, tum hoc tempore distineor, not only was I occupied before,

¹ In the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses the choice of mood often depends not so much upon the nature of the thought, as upon the intention and feeling of the writer at the moment. If he wishes to assert that the action of the temporal clause is an historical fact, he uses the Indicative; but if he introduces it for the sole purpose of defining the time of the principal action, he uses the Subjunctive. Thus, cum epistulam complicairem does not assert that I folded the letter, but, assuming that as admitted, it makes use of it in defining the time of cēnērunt. See also foot-note under 1 above; also p. 290, foot-note 1.

² Like the Subjunctive in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents; see 503, I.

but I am also occupied now. Cic. Quae cum sint gravia, tum illud acerbissimum est, though these things are severe, that is the most grievous. Cic.

Note 2.—For cum in Causal clauses, see 517.

NOTE 3.—For cum in Concessive clauses, see 515, III.

VIII. INDIRECT DISCOURSE—Ōrātiŏ Oblīqua.

Moods and Tenses in Indirect Discourse.

522. When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts, whether his own or those of another, in any other form than in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse—Oratio Obliqua:

Platōnem ferunt in Ĭtaliam vēnisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Respondeō tē dolōrem ferre moderātē, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cic. Ūtilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knowledge is useful. Cic.

- 1. In distinction from the Indirect Discourse— $\tilde{O}r\tilde{a}ti\delta$ Obliqua, the original words of the author are said to be in the Direct Discourse— $\tilde{O}r\tilde{a}ti\delta$ Recta.
 - 2. Words quoted without change belong to the DIRECT DISCOURSE:

Rex 'duumvirôs' inquit 'secundum legem facio,' the king said, 'I appoint duumvirs according to law.' Liv.

RULE LIII.-Moods in Principal Clauses.

523. The principal clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming Indirect take the *Infinitive* or *Subjunctive* as follows:

I. When Declarative, they take the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*.

Die Ebat animos esse divinos, he was wont to say that souls are divine. Cic. Platonem Tarentum vēnisse reperio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Cato mīrārī sē āiebat, Cato was wont to say that he wondered. Cic. Hippiās gloriātus est, annulum sē suā manū confēcisse, Hippias boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic.

Note.—The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression; especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose;

¹ Thus, in the first example, *Platēnem in Ĭtaliam vēnisse* is in the indirect discourse; in the direct, i. e., in the original words of those who made the statement, it would be: *Platē in Ītaliam vēnit*.

² In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) animī sunt dīvīnī, (2) Platŏ Tarentum vēnit, (3) mīror, and (4) annulum meā manū cōnfēcī. Observe that the pronominal subjects implied in mīror and cōnfēcī are expressed with the Infinitive, as mīrūrī sē, sē cōnfēcīsse. But the subject is sometimes omitted when it can be readily supplied; see second example under II., 2, below.

Pythia praecepit ut Miltiadem imperatorem sumerent; incepta prospera futura, Pythia commanded that they should take Miltiades as their commander, (telling them) that their efforts would be successful. Nep.

II. When Interrogative, they take—

1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulāta Caesaris respondit, quid sibĭ vellet, cūr venīret,¹ to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come? Caes.

Note.—Deliberative questions retain the Subjunctive from the direct discourse: In spem venerat se posse, etc.; cur fortunam periclitaretur, he hoped (had come into hope) that he was able, etc.; why should he try fortune? Caes.

2. Sometimes the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*, as in rhetorical questions:²

Docēbant rem esse testimōniō, etc.; quid esse levius, etc., they showed that the fact was a proof (for a proof), etc.; what was more inconsiderate, etc.? Caes. Respondit, num memoriam dēpōnere posse, he replied, could he lay aside the recollection? Caes.

III. When Imperative, they take the Subjunctive:

Scrībit Labiēnō cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to come (that Le should come) with a legion. Caes. Redditur respōnsum, castrīs sē tenērent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Mīlitēs certiōrēs facit, sē reficerent, he directed the soldiers to refresh themselves. Caes. Ōrābant ut sibǐ auxilium ferret, they prayed that he would bring them help. Caes. Nūntius vēnit, nē dubitāret, a message came that he should not hesitate. Nep. Cohortātus est, nē perturbārentur, he exhorted them not to be alarmed. Caes.

Note.—An affirmative command takes the Subjunctive without ut, except after verbs of wishing and asking, but a negative command takes the Subjunctive with $n\bar{e}$; see examples.

¹ In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) quid tibǐ vīs ? cūr venīs ? and (2) cūr perīcliter?

² A question used for rheterical effect in place of an assertion is called a *Rheterical Question*, as *num potest*, 'can he?' = *nīn potest*, 'he can not'; *quid est turpius*, 'what is baser?' = *nihil est turpius*, 'nothing is baser.' Here belong many questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or in the third person. As such questions are equivalent to declarative sentences, they take the same construction, the Infinitive with its subject.

³ Direct discourse—(1) quid est levius = nihil est levius, and (2) num memoriam deponere possum = memoriam deponere non possum.

⁴ Imperative sentences include those sentences which take the Subjunctive of Desire; see 484.

⁵ In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) cum legione venī, (2) castris vos terēte, (3) vos reficite, (4) nobīs auxilium fer, (5) nolī dubitāre, and (6) ni perturbātī sītts.

RULE LIV.-Moods in Subordinate Clauses.

524. The subordinate clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming Indirect take the Subjunctive:

Respondit së id quod in Nerviïs fëcisset factūrum, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii. Caes. Hippiās glōriātus est, annulum quem habēret sē suā manū cōnfēcisse, Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hand the ring which he wore, Cic.

1. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is sometimes used. Thus-

1) In clauses introduced by the relative pronoun, or by relative adverbs, ubi, unde, quare, etc., when they have the force of principal clauses (453):

Ad eum défertur, esse civem Romanum qui quererctur, quem (= et eum) asservatum esse, it was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard. Cic. Te suspicor eisdem, quibus me ipsum, commoveri, Isuspect that you are moved by the same things as I. Cic.

2) In clauses introduced by cum, quam, quamquam, quia, and some other

conjunctions, especially in Livy and Tacitus:

Num putātis, dīxisse Antonium minācius quam factūrum fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic. Dīcit, sē moenibus inclūsos tenēre eos, quia per agros vagārī, he says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because (otherwise) they would wander through the fields. Liv. See also 535, I., 5 and 6.

2. The Indicative is used-

1) In parenthetical and explanatory clauses introduced into the *Indirect Discourse* without strictly forming a part of it:

Referent silvam esse, quae appellätur Bacēnis, they report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis. Caes. Audiō Gellium philosophōs quī tune erant's convocāsse, I hear that Gellius called together the philosophers of that day (lit., who then were). Cic.

2) Sometimes in clauses not parenthetical, to give prominence to the *fact* stated, especially in relative and temporal clauses:

Certior factus est ex eā parte vīcī, quam Gallīs concesserat, omnēs discessisse, he was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls. Caes. Dīcunt illum diem clārissimum fuisse cum domum reductus est ā patribus, they say that the day when he was conducted home by the fathers was the most illustrious. Cie.

525. Tenses in the Indirect Discourse generally conform to the ordinary rules for the use of tenses in the Subjunctive and Infinitive; but notice the following special points:

¹ Direct, faciam id quod in Nerviis fēcī.

² Direct, annulum quem habeō meā manū confēcī.

³ These clauses, quae appellatur Bacenis and qui tunc erant, are not strictly parts of the general report, but explanations added by the narrator.

⁴ See 490-496 and 537

1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after an historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs sibǐ dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum, Caesar replied, that if hostages should be given him, he would make peace. Caes. Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis, neque ūllōs vacāre agrōs, quī darī possint, the close of the oration was, that there were (are) not any lands unoccupied which could (can) be given. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse is changed in the indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense:

Agunt ut dimicent; ibi imperium fore, unde victoria fuerit, they arrange that they shall fight; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory (whence the victory may have been). Liv. Appärebat regnätürum qui vicisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

Note.—For Tenses in Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse, see 527.

Pronouns and Persons in Indirect Discourse,

526. In passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, pronouns of the first and second persons are generally changed to pronouns of the third person, ² and the first and second persons of verbs are generally changed to the third person:

Glöriätus est, annulum se suā manū confecisse, he boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic. Redditur responsum, castrīs se tenerent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Respondit, sī obsides ab iīs sibi dentur, sese cum iīs pācem esse factūrum, he replied that if hostages should be given to him by them, he would make peace with them. Caes.

Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse.

527. Conditional sentences, in passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, undergo the following changes:

 $^{^1}$ In the direct discourse—(1) ibi imperium erit, unde victoria fuerit, and (2) rêgnabit qui vicerit.

² Thus—(1) ego is changed to suī, sibǐ, etc., or to ipse; meus and noster to suus; (2) tù to is or ille, sometimes to suī, etc.; tuus and rester to suus or to the Genitive of is; and (3) hīc and iste to ille. But the pronoun of the first person may of course be used in the indirect discourse in reference to the reporter or author, and the pronoun of the second person in reference to the person addressed: Adfirmāvī quidvīs mē perpessūrum, I asserted that I would endure anything. Cie. Respondeō tē dolērem ferre moderātē, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cie.

³ Direct, annulum ego meā manū confēcī. Ego becomes sē, and meā, suā.

⁴ Direct, castrīs vos tenēte. Vos becomes sē, and tenēte, tenērent.

⁵ Direct, sī obsidēs ā vöbīs mihī dabuntur, vöbīscum pācem faciam. Ā vöbīs becomes ab iīs; mihī becomes sibī; vöbīscum, cum iīs; and the implied subject of faci.m becomes sēsē, the subject of esse factūrum.

I. In the First Form, the *Indicative* is changed to the *Subjunctive* in the condition and to the *Infinitive* in the conclusion:

Respondit, sī quid Caesar sē velit, illum ad sē venīre oportēre, 1 he replied, if Caesar wished anything of him, he ought to come to him. Caes.

Note.—In all forms of conditional sentences the conclusion, when *imperative*, and generally when *interrogative*, takes the *Subjunctive* according to 523:

Responderunt, si non aequum existimaret, etc., cur postularet, 2 etc., they replied, if the did not think it fair, etc., why did he demand, etc. Caes. Eum certiorem feedrunt, si suas res manere vellet, Aleibiadem persequeretur, 3 they informed him that if the wished his institutions to be permanent, he should take measures against Aleibiades. Nep. Die quidnam facturus fueris, si censor fuisses, 4 say what you would have done, if you had been censor. Liv.

II. In the Second Form, the *Present* or *Perfect Subjunctive* in the condition remains unchanged after a principal tense, but may be changed ⁵ to the *Imperfect* or *Pluperfect* after an historical tense, and in the conclusion it is changed to the *Future Infinitive*:

Respondit, sī stīpendium remittātur, libenter sēsē recūsātūrum populī Romānī amīcitiam, he replied that if the tribute should be remitted, he would gladly renounce the friendship of the Roman people. Caes.

Note .- See note under I.

III. In the THERD FORM, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive remains unchanged in the condition, regardless of the tense of the principal verb, but in the conclusion it is changed to the Periphrastic Infinitive in -rus fuisse, rarely to that in -rus esse:

Respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, he replied that if he wanted anything of Caesar, he would have come to him. Caes. Clāmitābat, sī ille adesset, ventūros esse, he cried out that they would come if he were present. Caes.

NOTE I.—In the conclusion, the periphrastic form futurum fuisse ut with the Subjunctive is used in the Passive voice, and sometimes in the Active:

Nisi nuntii essent allätī, existimābant futūrum fuisse ut oppidum āmitterētur, they thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought. Caes.

NOTE 2.—In conditional sentences with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the condition, and with an historical tense of the Indicative in the conclusion—

- ¹ Direct, st quid Caesar me vult, illum ad me ventre oportet. For change of pronouns see 526, and for the tense of velit see 525, 1.
 - ² Direct, sī non aequum exīstimās, cūr postulās?
- ³ Direct, sī tuās rēs man³re vīs, Alcibiadem persequere. Notice change in the pronoun and in the person of the verb; see 526.
 - 4 Direct, quidnam fēcissēs (or factūrus fuistī), sī cēnsor fuissēs.
 - ⁵ But is often retained unchanged according to 525, 1.
- 6 Direct, sī stīpendium remittītur, libenter recūsem populī Rōmāvī amīcitiam, or sī stīpendium remittētur, libenter recūsabō populī Rōmāvī amīcitiam. Observe that these two forms become identical in the indirect discourse.
- Direct—(1) sī quid mihĭ ā Caesare opus esset, ad eum vēnissem; (2) sī illudesset, venīrent; and (3) nisi nūntiī essent allātī, oppidum āmissum esset.

1) The Indicative is generally changed to the Perfect Infinitive:

Memento istam dignitatem to non potuisse consequi, nisi meis consillis paruisses, remember that you would not have been able to attain that dignity, if you had not followed my counsels. Cic.

2) The Indicative is changed to the Perfect Subjunctive if the context requires that mood:

Quis dubitat quin si Saguntinis tulissemus operam, aversuri bellum fuerimus, who doubts that we should have averted the war, if we had carried aid to the Saguntines? Liv. Seimus quid, si vixisset, facturus fuerit, we know what he would have done, if he had lived. Liv.

Indirect Clauses.

528. The indirect discourse in its widest application includes—

1. Subordinate clauses containing statements made on the authority of any other person than the writer; see 516:

Omnës librës quës frater suus reliquisset miht denavit, he gave to me all the books which his brother had left. Cic.

2. Indirect questions; see 529, I.

NOTE. - A clause which involves a question without directly asking it is called an Indirect or Dependent Question:

Quaesīvit salvusne esset clipeus, he asked whether his shield was safe.3 Cic.

3. Many subordinate clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive; see 529, II.

RULE LV.-Moods in Indirect Clauses.

529. The Subjunctive is used—

I. In indirect questions:

Quaeritur, cūr doctissimī hominēs dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree. Cic. Quaesierās, nōnne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic. Quālis ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quaeritur quid futūrum sit, what will be, is the question. Cic. Quaerit quīnam ēventus, sī foret bellātum, futūrus fuerit, he asks what would have been the result if war had been waged. Liv. Dubitō num dēbeam, I doubt whether I ought. Plin. Incerta feror sī Juppiter velit, I am rendered uncertain whether Jupiter wishes. Verg. Ut tē oblectēs scīre cupiō, I wish to know how you amuse yourself. Cic. Difficile

¹ Direct—(1) istam dignitātem cēnsequī nēn potuīstī, nisi meīs cēnsiliīs pāruisvēs; (2) sī Saguntīnīs tulissēmus operam, bellum āversūrī fuimus; (3) quid, sī vīxisset, factūrus fuit?

² That is, which he said his brother had left.

³ Here no question is directly asked. We have simply the statement, 'he asked whether his shield was safe,' but this statement involves the question, salvusne est clipeus, 'is my shield safe?'

dictu est utrum timuerint an dīlēxerint, it is difficult to say whether they feared or loved. Cic.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indīgnius est quam eum quī culpā careat suppliciō non carēre, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment. Cic. Utrum difficilius esset negāre tibǐ an efficere id quod rogārēs diū dubitāvī, whether it would be more difficult to refuse your request or to do that which you ask, I have long doubted. Cic. Recordātione nostrae amīcitiae sīc fruor ut beātē vīxisse videar quia cum scīpione vīxerim, I so enjoy the recollection of our friendship that I seem to have lived happily because I have lived with Scipio. Cic. Naevium rogat ut cūret quod dīxisset, he asked Naevius to attend to that which he had mentioned. Cic. Vereor nē, dum minuere velim laborem, augeam, I fear that, while I wish to diminish the labor, I shall increase it. Cic.

Note 1.—In clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive, observe—

1) That the Subjunctive is used when the clauses are essential to the general

thought of the sentence, as in the examples just given.
2) That the Indicative is used when the clauses are in a measure parenthetical, and when they give special prominence to the fact stated:

Milites misit, ut eos qui fagerant persequerentur, he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled (i. e., the fugitives). Caes. Tanta vis probitătis est, ut eam, vel in iis quos nunquam vidimus, diligamus, such is the force of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen. Cic.

Note 2.—In clauses introduced by dum, the Indicative is very common, especially in the poets and historians:

Fuere qui, dum dubitat Scaevinus, hortarentur Pisonem, there were those who exhorted Piso, while Scaevinus hesitated. Tac. See also 467, 4.

1. Indirect or dependent questions, like those not dependent (351, 1), are introduced by interrogative pronouns or other interrogative words, as quis, qui, quālis, etc.; quid, cūr, nē, nōnne, num; rarely by sī, 'whether,' and ut, 'how'; see examples above.

Note 1.—Si is sometimes best rendered to see whether, to see if, to try if. etc. .

Te adeunt, sī quid velīs, they come to you to see whether you wish anything. Cic.

Note 2.—In the poets \$\tilde{i}\$ is sometimes similarly used with the Indicative:

Inspice si possum dönäta reponere, examine me to see whether I am able to restore your gifts. Hor.

Note 3.—In indirect questions num does not necessarily imply negation.

NOTE 4.—An indirect question may readily be changed to a direct or independent question.1

2. An Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes, especially in poetry, inserted after the principal verb:

¹ Thus the direct question involved in the first example is, $c\bar{u}r$ doctissim \bar{i} homines dissentiunt, 'why do the most learned men disagree?' In the second, nonne putas, 'do you not think?'

Ego illum nesciò qui fuerit, I do not know (him) who he was. Ter. Dichominem qui sit, tell who the man is. Plaut.

- 3. Indirect double questions are generally introduced by the same interrogative particles as those which are direct (353). Thus—
- 1) They generally take utrum or -ne in the first member and an in the second:

Quaeritur virtūs suamne propter dignitātem an propter frūctūs aliquōs expetātur, it is asked whether virtue is sought for its own worth, or for certain advantages. Cic.

2) But they sometimes omit the particle in the first member, and take in the second an or-ne in the sense of or, and necne or an non in the sense of or not:

Quaeritur nătūrā an doctrīnā possit efficī virtūs, it is asked whether virtue can be secured by nature, or by education. Cic. Sapientia beātōs efficiat necne quaestiŏ est, whether or not wisdom makes men happy is a question. Cic.

Note 1.—Other forms, as -ne . . . -ne, an . . . an, are rare or poetic:

Qui teneant, hominësne feraene, quaerere, to ascertain who inhabit them, whether men or beasts. Verg.

NOTE 2.—An, in the sense of whether not, implying an affirmative, is used after verbs and expressions of doubt and uncertainty; dubito an, nesciō an, haud seiō an, 'I doubt whether not,' 'I know not whether not' = 'I am inclined to think'; dubium est an, incertum est an, 'it is uncertain whether not' = 'it is probable':

Dubito an Thrasybulum primum omnium ponam, I doubt whether I should not place Thrasybulus first of all (i. e., I am inclined to think I should). Nep.

Note 3 .- An sometimes seems to have the force of aut:

Cum Simonides, an quis alius, polliceretur, when Simonides or some other one promised. Cic.

- 4. The Subjunctive is put in the *periphrastic form* in the indirect question (1) when it represents a *periphrastic form* in the direct question, and (2) generally, not always, when it represents a *Iuture Indicative*; see the fifth and sixth examples under 529, I.
 - 5. Indirect Questions must be carefully distinguished-
- 1) From clauses introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs. These always have an antecedent or correlative expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while indirect questions are generally so used:

Dicam quod sentiō (relative clause), I will tell that which (id quod) I think. Lic. Dicam quid intellegam (indirect question), I will tell what I know. Cic. Quaerāmus ubī maleficium est, let us seek there (ibǐ) where the crime is. Cic.

2) From direct questions and exclamations:

¹ Some critics treat an quis alius as a direct question inserted parenthetically: or was it some other one?

² In the first and third examples, $quod\ sentio\$ and $ub\$ t̄ . . . est are not questions, but relative clauses; id is understood as the antecedent of $quod\$ and $ib\$ t̄ as the antecedent or correlative of $ub\$ t̄, but in the second example, $quid\ intellegam$ is an indirect question and the object of $d\$ t̄ $cam:I\ will\ tell\$ (what?) $what\ I\ know\$ (i. e., will answer that question).

Quid agendum est? nescio, what is to be done? I know not.1 Cic. Vide! quam conversa res est, see! how changed is the case. Cic.

3) From clauses introduced by nesciō quis = quīdam,2 'some one,' nesciō quomodo = quodammodo, 'in some way,' mirum quantum, 'wonderfully much,' 'wonderfully,' etc. These take the Indicative:

Nescio quid animus praesagit, the mind forebodes, I know not what. Ter. Id mīrum quantum profuit, this profited, it is wonderful how much (i. e., it wonderfully profited). Liv.

6. Personal Construction.—Instead of an impersonal verb with an indirect question as subject, the personal construction is sometimes used, as follows:

Perspiciuntur quam sint leves,4 it is seen how inconstant they are! Cie.

7. The Indicative in Indirect Questions is sometimes used in early Latin and in the poets, especially in Plautus and Terence:

Sī memorāre velim, quam fidēlī animō fuī, possum, if I should wish to mention how much fidelity I showed, I am able. Ter.

530. The directions already given for converting the DIRECT DIS-COURSE, Ōrātiŏ Rēcta, into the Indirect, Ōrātiŏ Oblīqua, are further illustrated in the following passage from Caesar:

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obsecrāre coepit: 'Nē quid gravius in fratrem statueris; scio illa esse vēra, nec quisquam ex eō plūs quam ego doloris capit, propterea quod cum ipse grātiā plārimum domī atque in rěliquā Galliā, ille minimum propter adulescentiam poterat, per mē erēvit; quibus opibus āc nervīs non sõlum ad minuendam grātiam, sed paene ad perniciem meam ūtitur; ego tamen et amore fraterno et existimātione vulgī commoveor. Quod sī quid ĕī ā tē gravius acciderit, cum ipse hunc locum amīcitiae apud tē teneam, nēmő exīstimābit, non meā voluntāte factum; quā ex rē tōtīus Galliae animī ā mē āvertentur.'

INDIRECT DISCOURSE. Caesarem obsecrăre coepit, ne quid gravius in fratrem statueret; scire se illa esse vēra, nec quemquam ex eō plūs quam se doloris capere, propterea quod cum ipse grātiā plūrimum domī atque in rěliqua Gallia, ille minimum propter adulescentiam posset, per se crēvisset; quibus opibus āc nervīs non solum ad minuendam grātiam, sed paene ad perniciem suam ūterētur; sēsē tamen et amore fraterno et existimătione vulgi commoveri. Quod sī quid ĕī ā Caesare gravius accidisset, cum ipse eum locum amīcitiae apud eum teneret, neminem existimaturum, non suā voluntāte factum; quā ex rē futūrum utī tōtīus Galliae animī ā sē averterentur. Caes., B. G., I., 20.

¹ Quid agendum sit nescio, 'I know not what is to be done,' would be an indirect question.

² See **191**, note.

³ Praesāgit does not depend upon nescio, but is entirely independent. Nescio quid animus praesagiat would be an indirect question, and would mean, I know not what the mind forebodes.

⁴ Lit., they are seen. Observe that this personal construction corresponds to the Active, perspiciunt eos quam sint leves, 'they perceive (them) how inconstant they are.' See also ego illum nescio qui fuerit, 529, 2.

Note -In this illustration observe the following points:

- 1) That the Indicative in the principal clauses of the direct discourse is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive in the indirect, and that the Subjunctive, statueris, denoting incomplete action, is changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive after the historical tense, coepit.
- 2) That in the subordinate clauses the verbs denoting incomplete action are changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive, while those denoting completed action are changed to the Pluperfect Subjunctive.²
- That sciō becomes scīre sē (i. e., that the subject of the Infinitive is generally expressed).
- 4) That the pronouns of the first person are changed to reflexives; and that those of the second person are changed to is.³
- 531. The process by which the Indirect Discourse, $\bar{O}r\bar{a}tio$ Oblique, is changed to the Direct, $\bar{O}r\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$ Rēcta, is illustrated in the following passages from Caesar:

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit, trānsīsse Rhēnum sēsē non suā sponte, sed rogātum et arcēssītum ā Gallīs. Sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Romānum. Quid sibǐ vellet? Cūr in suās possessionēs venīret? Caes., B. G., I., 44.

Ita respondit, eō sibī minus dubitātionis darī quod eās rēs quās lēgātī Helvētiī commemorāssent memoriā tenēret. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīvīscī vellet, num etiam recentium injūriārum memoriam dēponere posse? Cum ea ita sint, tamen, sī obsidēs ab išs sibī dentur, sēsē cum išs pācem esse factūrum. Caes., B. G., I., 14.

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit: 'Trānsiī Rhēnum non meā sponte, sed rogātus et arcēssītus ā Gallīs. Ego prius in Galliam vēnī quam populus Rōmānus. Quid tihī vīs? Cūr in meās possessionēs venīs?'

Ita respondit: 'Eō mihǐ minus dubitātiōnis datur quod eās rēs quās vōs, lēgātī Helvētīi, commemorāvistis, memoriā tenēō. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīvīscī volō, num etiam recentium injūriārum memoriam dēpōnere possum? Cum haec ita sint, tamen, sī obsidēs ā vōbīs mihī dabuntur, vōbīscum pācem faciam.'

Note.—In these illustrations observe the following points:

1) That in the principal clauses (1) the Infinitives with set or seed, expressed or understood, are changed to the first person of the Indicative; 4 (2) other Infinitives are also changed to the Indicative, but the person is determined by the context; 5 and (3)

¹ Thus sciŏ becomes scīre; capit, capere; commoveor, commoverī; exīstimābit, exīstimātūrum (esse); and āvertentur, futūrum utī āverterentur. This last form, futūrum utī āverterentur, is the Periphrastic Future Infinitive Passive; see 537, 3.

² Thus poterat becomes posset; ŭtitur, úterētur; teneam, tenēret; but crēvit becomes crēvisset; acciderit, accidisset.

³ Thus (1) ego is changed to $s\bar{e}$; $m\bar{e}$ to $s\bar{e}$; meam to suam; me \bar{u} to $su\bar{a}$; and (2) $t\bar{e}$ to eum; hunc to eum.

⁴ Thus transisse sese is changed to transii; se venisse to ego veni; sese esse facturum to faciam; posse, with se understood, possum.

⁵ Thus minus darī becomes minus datur; but if the subject of the Infinitive is of the second person, the Indicative will also be of that person. Respondeō tē dolērem ferre moderātē thus becomes respondeō, 'dolērem moderātē fere;' see p. 299, footnote 2.

Subjunctives are changed to the Indicative after interrogative words, and to the Imperative in other situations.

- 2) That in the subordinate clauses the Subjunctive, unless required by the thought irrespective of the indirect discourse, is changed to the Indicative.³
- 3) That the reflexive pronouns sui, sibi, etc., and suus are changed (1) generally to pronouns of the first person, but (2) sometimes to those of the second person.⁴
 - 4) That is and ille are (1) generally changed to $t\bar{u}$ or $\hbar ic$, but (2) sometimes retained.
- 5) That a noun referring to the person or persons addressed may be put in the Vocative preceded by $t\bar{u}$ or $v\bar{v}s$.

SECTION VII.

INFINITIVE.-SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

I. Infinitive.

532. The Infinitive is a verbal noun with special characteristics. Like verbs, it has voice and tense, takes adverbial modifiers, and governs oblique cases.

RULE LVI.-Infinitive.

533. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning:

Audeō dīcere, I dare say (I venture to say). Cic. Haec vītāre cupimus, we desire to avoid these things. Cic. Cōnstituit non progredī, he decided

- 1 Thus quid vellet is changed to quid vis? cur veniret to cur venis? Vellet and veniret are in the Imperfect simply because dependent upon an historical tense, and are therefore changed to the Present in the direct discourse. In deliberative questions (484, V.) the Subjunctive is retained in the direct discourse.
- ² Thus cum legione veniat, under 523, III., becomes cum legione veni. The Subjunctive may of course be retained in the direct discourse whenever the thought requires that mood.
- ³ Thus commemorāssent, pluperfect after an historical tense, is changed to commemorāvistis; tenēret to teneō; vellēt to volō; dentur to dabuntur. Sint is retained unchanged because required in a causal clause with cum; see 517.
- 4 Thus (1) trānsīsse sēsē is changed to trānsiī, with subject implied in the ending; suā to meā; sē vēnisse to ego vēnī, with emphatic subject; suās to meās; sibī to mihī; sēsē esse factūrum to fuciam; (2) sibī to tībī, in quid sibī vellet. As the subject of an Infinitive (536), sē or sēsē often corresponds to the pronominal subject implied in the ending of a finite verb; see p. 187, foot-note 5.
- 5 Thus (1) ab its is changed to ā võbis; cum its to võbiscum; ea ita sint to hace ita sint; (2) eās rēs is retained.
- 6 Thus lēgūtī Helvētiī, the subject of commemorāssent, is changed to võs, lēgūtī Helvētiī
- 7 Originally the Latin Infinitive appears to have been the Dative case of an abstract verbal noun, and to have been used to denote the purpose or end (384, 1, 3) for which anything is or is done. Being thus only loosely connected with the verb of the sentence, it readily lost its special force as a case and soon began to be employed with considerable freedom in a variety of constructions. In this respect the history of the Infinitive resem-

not to advance. Caes. Crēdulī esse coepērunt, they began to be credulous. Cic. Vincere seīs, you know how to conquer (you know to conquer). Liv. Vīctēriā ūtī nescīs, you do not know how to use victory. Liv. Latīnē loquī didicerat, he had learned to speak Latin. Sall. Dēbēs hoc rescribere, you ought to write this in reply. Hor. Nēmo mortem effugere potest, no one is able to escape death. Cic. Solent cēgitāre, they are accustomed to think. Cic.

- I. The Infinitive is thus used-
- 1. With Transitive Verbs meaning to dare, desire, determine; to begin, continue, end; to know, learn; to owe, etc.; see examples above.

NOTE 1.—For the *Subjunctive* with some of these verbs, see **498**, I., note. NOTE 2.—See also **498**, II., note 1.

- 2. With Intransitive Verbs meaning to be able; to be wont, be accustomed, etc.; see examples above.
- II. In special constructions the Infinitive has nearly the force of a DATIVE OF PURPOSE OR END-1
 - 1. With Intransitive Verbs:

Non populare penates venimus, we have not come to lay waste your homes. Verg. Conjuravere patriam incendere, they conspired to destroy their country with fire. Sall.

2. With Transitive Verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Pecus egit altos visere montes, he drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains. Hor. Quid habes dicere, what have you to say? Cic. Dederat comam diffundere ventis, she had given her hair to the winds to scatter. Verg.²

3. With Adjectives:

Est paratus audire, he is prepared to hear (for hearing). Cic. Avidī committere pūgnam, eager to engage (for engaging) in battle. Ovid. Föns rīvā dare nomen idoneus, a fountain fit to give a name to the river. Hor,

Note 1.—This use of the Infinitive is mostly poetical.

Note 2.—With adjectives and with participles used as adjectives the Infinitive is rare in prose, but is freely used in poetry in a variety of constructions:

Cantare peritus, skilled in singing. Verg. Pēlidēs cēdere nescius, Pelides not knowing how to yield. Hor. Certa morī, determined to die. Verg. Dīgnus dēscrībī, worthy to be described. Hor. Vitulus niveus vidērī, a calf snow-white to view. Hor.

bles that of adverbs from the oblique cases of nouns. As such adverbs are often used with greater freedom than the cases which they represent, so the Latin Infinitive often appears in connections where, as a Dative, it would not have been at all admissible. Upon the Origin and History of the Indo-European Infinitive, see Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs.'

- ¹ In these constructions the Infinitive retains its original force and usc; see 532, foot-note.
- ² In these examples with transitive verbs observe that the *Accusative* and *Infinitive* correspond to the *Accusative* and *Dative* under 384, II., and that the *Accusative* Dative, and Infinitive correspond to the *Accusative* and two Datives under 390, II.
 - 3 Niveus vidērī, like the Greek λευκός ίδέσθαι.

Piger scribendi ferre laborem, reluctant to bear the labor of writing. Hor. Suum of ficium facere immemor est, he forgets (is forgetful) to do his duty. Plaut,

Note 3.—The Infinitive also occurs, especially in poetry, with verbal nouns and with such expressions as tempus est, copia est, etc.:

Cupīdo Stygios innāre lacus, a desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes. Verg. Quibus molliter vīvere copia erat, who had the means for living at ease. Sall. Tempus est dicere, it is time to speak. Cic.

Note 4.—The Infinitive is sometimes used with prepositions:

Multum interest inter dare et accipere, there is a great difference between giving and receiving. Sen.

RULE LVII.-Accusative and Infinitive.

534. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive:

Të sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise. Cic. Eōs suum adventum exspectăre jussit, he ordered them to await his approach. Caes. Poltem jubet rescindī, he orders the bridge to be broken down. Caes. Të tuā fruī virtūte cupimus, we wish you to enjoy your virtue. Cic. Sentīmus calēre īgnem, we perceive that fire is hot (we perceive fire to be hot). Cic. Rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse, they relate that the king concealed himself.¹ Liv.

Note.—In the compound forms of the Infinitive, esse is often omitted, especially in the future:

Audīvī solitum Fabricium, I have heard that Fabricius was wont. Cic. Spērāmus vöbīs pröfutūrōs, we hope to benefit you. Cic.

1. The corresponding Passive is sometimes pcrsonal and sometimes impersonal : 2

Personal.—Aristīdēs jūstissimus fuisse trāditur, Aristīdes is said (is reported by tradition) to have been most just. Cic. Sõlem ē mundō tollere videntur, they seem to remove the sun from the world. Cic. Platōnem audīvisse dīcitur, he is said to have heard Plato. Cic. Diī beātī esse intelleguntur, the gods are understood to be happy. Cic.

IMPERSONAL.—Traditum est Homerum caecum fuisse, it has been reported

Observe that in the first three examples the Accusatives $t\bar{e}$, $e\bar{o}s$, and pontem, are the direct objects of the finite verbs, while in the other examples the Accusatives $t\bar{e}$, $\bar{e}g$ -mem, and $r\bar{e}gem$, may be explained either as the $d\bar{i}rect$ objects of the finite verbs, or as the subjects of the Infinitives. The former was doubtless the original construction, but in time the object of the principal verb came to be regarded in many cases as the subject of the Infinitive. Thus was developed the Subject Accusative of the Infinitive.

² These two constructions correspond to the two interpretations of the Active mentioned in foot-note 1 above. Thus, in the sentence, Aristīdem jūstissimum fuisse trādunt, if Aristīdem is regarded as the object of trādunt, according to the original conception, the corresponding Passive will be personal: Aristīdēs jūstissimus fuisse trādītur; but if Aristīdem is regarded as the subject of fuisse, and the clause Aristīdem jūstissimum fuisse as the object of trādunt, then the same clause will become the subject of the Passive, and the construction will be impersonal: Aristīdem jūstissimum fuisse trādītur, 'it is reported by tradition that Aristīdes was most just.'

by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic. Unam partem Gallos obtinere dictumest, it has been stated that the Gauls occupy one part. Caes. Nuntiaturesse naves in portu, it is announced that the vessels are in port. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Personal Construction is used—(1) regularly in jubeor, vetor, and videor; (2) generally in the simple tenses 1 of most verbs of SAYING, THINKING, and the like, as dicor, trādor, feror, nūntior, crēdor, existimor, putor, perhibeor, etc.; (3) sometimes in other verbs; see examples above.

NOTE 2.—The *Impersonal Construction* is especially common in the *compound* tenses, though also used in the simple tenses; see examples above.

535. The Accusative and an Infinitive are used with a great variety of verbs. Thus—

I. With verbs of Perceiving and Declaring:

Sentīmus calēre īgnem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Mihi nārrāvit tē sollicitum esse, he told me that you were troubled. Cic. Scripserunt Themistoclem in Asiam trānsisse, they wrote that Themistocles had gone over to Asia. Nep.

- 1. Verbs of Perceiving include those which involve (1) the exercise of the senses: andiō, videō, sentiō, etc., and (2) the exercise of the mind—think-ing, believing, knowing: cōgitō, putō, existimō, crēdo, spērō—intellegō, sció, etc.
- 2. Verbs of Declaring are such as state or communicate facts or thoughts: dicō, nārrō, nūntiō, doceō, ostendō, prōmittō, etc.
- 3. Expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and of declaring, as fama fert, 'report says,' testis sum, 'I am a witness' = 'I testify,' conscius mihit sum, 'I am conscious,' 'I know,' also admit an Accusative with an Infinitive:

Nullam mihi relatam esse gratiam, tu es testis, you are a witness (can testify) that no grateful return has been made to me. Cic.

4. Participle for Infinitive.—Verbs of perceiving take the Accusative with the present participle, when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given action:

Catônem vidī in bibliotheca sedentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library. Cic.

5. Subjects Compared.—When two subjects with the same predicate are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Infinitive may be understood in the second:

Platonem ferunt idem sensisse quod Pythagoram, they say that Plato held the same opinion as Pythagoras. Cic.

6. Predicates Compared.—When two predicates with the same subject are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative may be understood in the second:

Num putātis, dīxisse Antonium minācius quam factūrum fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic.

Note.—But the second clause may take the Subjunctive, with or without ut:

¹ The learner will remember that the simple tenses are formed simply by inflexional endings, as $d\bar{i}citur$, $d\bar{i}c\bar{e}b\bar{d}tur$, but that the compound tenses are formed by the union of the perfect participle with the verb sum, as dictum est, dictum erat, etc.

Audeo dicere ipsos potius cultores agrorum fore quam ut coli prohibeant, I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled. Liv.

II. With verbs of Wishing, Desiring, Commanding, and their opposites: 1

Të tua frui virtute cupimus, we desire that you should enjoy your virtue. Cic. Pontem jubet rescindi, he orders the bridge to be broken down (that the bridge should be broken down). Caes. Lex eum necari vetuit, the law forbade that he should be put to death. Liv.

Note.—Several verbs involving a wish or command admit the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, generally with ut or ne; see 498, 1:

Optō ut id audiātis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic. Volŏ ut respondeās, I wish you would reply. Cic. Mālō tē hostis metuat, I prefer that the enemy should fear you. Cic. Concēdō ut haee apta sint, I admit that these things are suitable. Cic.

III. With verbs of Emotion and Feeling: 2

Gaudeo të mihi suadëre, I rejoice that you advise me. Cic. Miramur të laetari, we wonder that you rejoice. Cic.

Note.—Verbs of emotion and feeling often take clauses with quod (540, IV.) to give prominence to the fact stated, or to emphasize the ground or reason for the feeling:

Gaudeo quod té interpellavi, I rejoice that (or because) I have interrupted you. Cic. Dolebam quod socium àmiseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic.

IV. Sometimes, especially in POETRY and in LATE PROSE, with verbs which usually take the Subjunctive: 3

Gentem hortor amare focos, I exhort the race to love their homes. Verg. Cunctī suasērunt Ĭtaliam petere, all advised to seek Italy. Verg. Soror monet succedere Lauso Turnum, the sister warns Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Verg.

RULE LVIII.—Subject of Infinitive.

536. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject:

Sentīmus calēre īgnem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Platōnem Tarentum vēnisse reperio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic.

As cupio, opto, voló, noló, malo, etc.; patior, sino; imperò, jubeo; prohibeo, veto, etc.

² As gaudeo, doleo, miror, queror, etc.; also acgre fero, graviter fero, etc.

³ Many verbs in Latin thus admit two or more different constructions; see in the dictionary adigo, cènseo, concèdo, cògō, cònstituo, contendo, cupio, cùrō, dècernō, dico, doceo, élaboro, énitor, facio, impedio, impero, jubeo, laboro, malo, mando, motior, moneo, nolō, optō, orō, patior permitto, persuadeo, postulo, praecipio, praecico, prohibeo, sinō, statuō, studeo, suādeō, vero, videō. See also Draeger, II., pp. 230-416.

⁴ Remember that the Infinitive, as a verbal noun, originally had no subject, but that subsequently in special constructions a subject Accusative was developed out of the object of the principal verb; see 534, foot-note 1. In classical Latin many Infinitives have no subjects, either expressed or understood.

1. HISTORICAL INFINITIVE.—In lively descriptions the Present Infinitive is sometimes used for the Imperfect or the Perfect Indicative. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Catilina in prīmā aciē versārī, omnia providēre, multum ipse pūgnāre, saepe hostem ferīre, Catiline was busy in the front line; he attended to everything, fought much in person, and often smote down the enemy.\(^1\) Sall.

Nore.—The Historical Infinitive sometimes denotes customary or repeated action: Omnia in pējus ruere āc retrō referrī, all things change rapidly for the worse and are borne backward. Verg.

- 2. A PREDICATE Noun or a Predicate Adjective after an Infinitive agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, according to the general rule (362). It is thus—
 - 1) In the Nominative, when predicated of the principal subject:

Nolo esse laudator, I am unwilling to be a eulogist. Cic. Beatus esse sine virtute nemo potest, no one can be happy without virtue. Cic. Parens dicipotest, he can be called a parent. Cic.

Note, -Participles in the compound tenses agree like predicate adjectives:

Pollicitus esse dicitur, he is said to have promised. Cic.

2) In the Accusative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Accusative:

Ego më Phīdiam esse māllem, I should prefer to be Phidias. Cic. Trāditum est, Homërum caecum fuisse, it has been handed down by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic.

3) In the Dative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative:

Patricio tribuno plebis fieri non licebat, it was not lawful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people. Cic. Mihĭ neglegenti esse non licuit, it was not permitted me to be negligent. Cic.

Note.—A noun or adjective predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative is sometimes put in the Accusative:

El consulem fieri licet, it is lawful for him to be made consul. Caes.

537. The Tenses of the Infinitive—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, or future, relatively to that of the principal verb:

PRESENT.—Cupiō mē esse clēmentem, I desire to be mild. Cic. Māluit sē dīligī quam metuī, he preferred to be loved rather than feared. Nep.

Perfect.—Platonem ferunt in Italiam venisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Conscius mihi eram, nihil a me commissum esse, I was conscious to myself that no offence had been committed by me. Cic.

FUTURE.—Brūtum vīsum īrī ā mē putš, I think Brutus will be seen by me.

¹ Historical Infinitives are generally used in groups, seldom singly.

² Here Phidiam is predicated of mē (lit., me to be Phidias), and caecum of Ho mērum.

³ Tribūnō is predicated of patriciō, and neglegenti of miht.

Cic. ŌrācuIum datum erat victrīcēs Athēnās fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic.

Note.—In general, the Present Infinitive represents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb, the Perfect as then completed or past, and the Future as then about to take place; but tense is so imperfectly developed in the Infinitive that even relative time is not marked with much exactness. Hence—

1) The Present is sometimes used of future actions, and sometimes with little or no reference to time:

Cras argentum dare dixit, he said that he would give the silver to-morrow. Ter.

2) The Perfect is sometimes used of present actions, though chiefly in the poets:

Tetigisse timent poëtam, they fear to touch (to have touched) the poet. Hor.

1. After the past tenses of debeo, oportet, possum, and the like, the Present Infinitive is used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sometimes also after memini, and the like; regularly in recalling what we have ourselves experienced:

Dēbuit officiosior esse, he ought to have been more attentive. Cic. Id potuit facere, he might have done this. Cic. Mē Athēnīs audīre meminī, I remember to have heard (hearing) in Athens. Cic.

2. The Perfect Passive Infinitive sometimes denotes the result of the action. Thus, doctus esse may mean either to have been instructed or to be a learned man (lit., an instructed man). If the result thus denoted belongs to past time, fuisse must take the place of esse:

Populum alloquitur, sopītum fuisse rēgem ictū, she addresses the people, saying that the king was stunned by the blow. Liv. See also 471, 6, note 1.

3. Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the Periphrastic Form, futurum esse ut, or fore ut, with the Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, is frequently used:

Spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs, I hope this will fall to our lot (I hope it will come to pass that this may happen to us). Cic. Nōn spērāverat Hannibal, fore ut ad sē dēficerent, Hannibal had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv.

Note 1.—This circumlocution is common in the Passive, and is moreover necessary in both voices in all verbs which want the Supine and the participle in rus.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes fore ut with the Subjunctive, Perfect or Pluperfect, is used with the force of a Future Perfect; and in passive and deponent verbs, fore with the perfect participle may be used with the same force:

Dicō mē satis adeptum fore, I say that I shall have obtained enough. Cic.

538. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, is often used as the subject of a verb:

WITH Subject.—Caesari nuntiatum est equites accedere, it was announced to Caesar that the cavalry was approaching. Caes. Facinus est vinciri civem Romanum, that a Roman citizen should be bound is a crime. Cic. Certum

¹ This use of the Infinitive as subject was readily developed out of its use as object; see 534, 1, foot-note. Thus the Infinitive, with or without a subject, finally came to be regarded as an *indeclinable noun*, and was accordingly used not only as *subject* and *object*, but also as *predicate* and *appositive* (539, I. and II.), and sometimes even in the *Ablative Absolute* (539, IV.), and in dependence upon prepositions (533, 3, note 4)

est liberos amārī, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. Lēgem brevem esse oportet, it is necessary that a law be brief. Sen.

Without Subject.—Decretum est non dare signum, it was decided not to give the signal. Liv. Are est difficilis rem publicam regere, to rule a state is a difficult art. Cic. Cārum esse jūcundum est, it is pleasant to be held dear. Cic. Haec seīre juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Sen. Peccāre licet nēminī, to sin is lawful for no one. Cic.

- 1. When the subject is an Infinitive, the predicate is either (1) a noun or adjective with sum, or (2) a verb used impersonally; see the examples above.
- 2. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, may be the subject of another Infinitive:

Intellegi necesse est esse deōs, it must be understood that there are gods. Cic.

3. The Infinitive sometimes takes a demonstrative as an attributive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hoe displicet philosophārī, this philosophizing (this to philosophize) displeases some persons. Cic. Vīvere ipsum turpe est nobīs, to live is itself ignoble for us. Cic.

539. Special Constructions.—The Infinitive with a subject ² is sometimes used—

I. As a Predicate; see 362:

Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis sibǐ nūllam cum hīs amīcitiam esse, 2 the close of his oration was that he had no friendship with these. Caes.

Note.—An Infinitive without a subject may be used as a Predicate Nominative: Vivere est cōgitāre, to live is to think. Cic.

II. As an Appositive; see 363:

Ōrāculum datum erat vīctrīcēs Athēnās fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic. Illud soleō mīrārī, non mē accipere tuās litterās, I am accustomed to wonder at this, that I do not receive your letter. Cic.

III. In Exclamations; see 381:

Të sic vexari, that you should be thus troubled! Cic. Mone incepto desistere victam, that I, vanquished, should abandon my undertaking! 4 Verg.

IV. In the ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE; see 431, note 1:

Audītō Darīum movisse pērgit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had withdrawn having been heard), he advanced. Curt.

- 1 Esse deās is the subject of intellegī, and intellegī esse deās of est.
- ² Including the modifiers of each. Thus in the example the whole clause, $sib\check{t}$ newlarm cum his amicritum esse, is used as a Predicate Nominative in agreement with the subject exitus; see 362.
- 3 In the examples, the clause victrices Athenas fore is in apposition with eraculum, and the clause nen me accipere twas litteras, in apposition with illud.
- 4 This use of the Infinitive conforms, it will be observed, to the use of the Accusative and Nominative in exclamations (381, with note 3).

II. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

540. In Latin, clauses which are used as *substantives* take one of four forms. They may be—

I. INDIRECT QUESTIONS:

Quaeritur, cūr dissentiant, it is asked why they disagree. Cic. Quid agendum sit, nesciš, I do not know what ought to be done. Cic.

NOTE.—For the use of Indirect Questions, see 529, I.

II. INFINITIVE CLAUSES:

Antecellere contigit, it was his good fortune to excel (to excel happened). Cic. Magna negotia voluit agere, he wished to achieve great undertakings. Cic.

Note.—For the use of Infinitive Clauses, see 534; 535.

III. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES, generally introduced by ut, ne, etc.:

Contigit ut patriam vindicaret, it was his good fortune to save his country. Nep. Volŏ ut mihī respondeas, I wish you would answer me. Cic.

Note .- For the use of such Subjunctive Clauses, see 498; 499, 3; 501.

IV. CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY quod:

Beneficium est quod necesse est mori, it is a blessing that it is necessary to die. Sen. Gaudeō quod të interpellavi, I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you. Cic.

Note.—Quod-clauses, used substantively, either give prominence to the fact stated, or present it as a ground or reason. They may be used as the subjects of impersonal verbs, as the objects of transitive verbs, especially of such as denote emotion or feeling, and as appositives:

Hūc accēdēbat quod exercitum luxuriôsē habuerat, to this was added the fact that he had kept the army in luxury. Sall. Adde quod ingenuās didicisse artēs ēmollit mōrēs, add the fact that to learn liberal arts refines manners. Ovid. Bene facis quod mē adjuvās, you do well that you assist me. Cic. Dolēbam quod socium āmīseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic. See also 535, III., note.

SECTION VIII.

GERUNDS, GERUNDIVES, SUPINES, AND PARTICIPLES.

I. GERUNDS.

541. The Gerund is a verbal noun which shares so largely the character of a verb that it governs oblique cases, and takes adverbial modifiers:

¹ Quod-clauses occur—(1) as the subject of accèdit, accidit, apparet, èvenit, fit, nocet, obest, occurrit, pròdest, etc.; also of est with a noun or adjective, as causa est, vitium est, etc., gratum est, indignum est, mirum est, etc.; and (2) as dependent upon accūsō, addō, adiceō (p. 20, foot-note 1), admīror, animadvertō, angor. bene faciō, dèlector, doleō, excūsō, faciō, gaudeō, glòrior, laetor, miror, mittō, omittō, praetereō, quiror, etc. They are sometimes used like the Accusative of Specification. See 516, 2, note.

² The Gerund and the Gerundire were originally identical The former is the neu-

Jūs vocandī¹ senātum, the right of summoning the senate. Liv. Beātē vīvendī¹ cupiditās, the desire of living happily. Cic.

Note. - In a few instances the Gerund has apparently a passive meaning:

Neque habent propriam percipiendi notam, nor have they any proper mark of distinction (i. e., to distinguish them). Cic.

- 542. The Gerund has four cases—the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative—used in general like the same cases of nouns. Thus—
 - I. The GENITIVE OF THE GERUND is used with nouns and adjectives:2

Ars vīvendī, the art of living. Cic. Studiosus erat audiendī, he was desirous of hearing. Nep. Cupidus te audiendī, desirous of hearing you. Cic. Artem vēra āc falsa dijūdicandī, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cic.

Note 1.—The Gerund usually governs the same case as the verb, but sometimes, by virtue of its substantive nature, it governs the Genitive, especially the Genitive of personal pronouns—meī, nostrī, tuī, vestrī, suī:

Cōpia plācandī tui (of a woman), an opportunity of appeasing you. Ov. Suī cōnservandī causā, for the purpose of preserving themselves. Cic. Vestrī adhortandī causā, for the purpose of exhorting you. Liv. Reiciendī i jūdicum potestās, the power of challenging (of) the judges. Cic. Lūcis tuendī cōpia, the privilege of beholding the light. Plaut.

Note 2.—The Genitive of the Gerund is sometimes used to denote purpose or tendency:

Lēgēs pellendī clārōs virōs, laws for (lit., of) driving away illustrious men. Tac.

II. The Dative of the Gerund is used with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative:

Cum solvendo non essent, since they were not able to pay. Cic. Aqua utilis est bibendo, water is useful for drinking. Plin.

Note.—The Dative of the Gerund is rare; 4 with an object it occurs only in Plautus.

III. The Accusative of the Gerund is used after a few prepositions:5

Ad discendum propensi sumus, we are inclined to learn (to learning). Cic. Inter ludendum, in or during play. Quint.

ter of a participle used substantively, while the latter is that same participle used adjectively. Moreover, from this participle the Gerund developed an active meaning and the Gerundive a passive. On the Origin and Use of Gerunds and Gerundives, see Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs,' pp. 198-200. Draeger, II., pp. 789-823.

- 1 Vocandi as a Genitive is governed by jūs, and yet it governs the Accusative senātum; vivendi is governed by cupiditās, and yet it takes the adverbial modifier beātē.
- ² The adjectives which take the *Genitive of the Gerund* are chiefly those denoting DESIRE, KNOWLEDGE, SKILL, RECOLLECTION, and their opposites: aridus, cupidus, studiosus; conscius, gnārus, ignārus; perītus, imperītus, insuētus, etc.
 - ³ Pronounced as if written rejiciendī; see p. 20, foot-note 1.
- 4 According to Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs,' p. 200, the Gerund originally had only one case, the Dative, and was virtually an Infinitive.
- 6 Most frequently after ad; sometimes after inter and ob; very rarely after ante, $circ\bar{a},$ and in,

Note 1 .- The Accusative of the Gerund with a direct object is rare:

Ad placandum deos pertinet, it tends to appease the gods. Cic.

Note 2.—The Gerund with ad often denotes purpose:

Ad imitandum mihi propositum est exemplar illud, that model has been set before me for imitation. Cic.

IV. The Ablative of the Gerund is used (1) as Ablative of Means, and (2) with prepositions: 1

Mens discendo alitur, the mind is nourished by learning. Cic. Salūtem hominibus dando, by giving safety to men. Cic. Virtūtēs cernuntur in agendo, virtues are seen in action. Cic. Dēterrēre-ā scrībendo, to deter from writing. Cic.

Note 1.—After prepositions, the Ablative of the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare :

In tribuendo suum cuique, in giving every one his own. Cic.

NOTE 2.—Without a preposition, the Ablative of the Gerund denotes in a few instances some other relation than that of means, as time, separation, etc.:

Incipiendo refugi, I drew back in the very beginning. Cic.

II. GERUNDIVES.

543. The Gerundive, like other participles, agrees with nouns and pronouns:

Inita sunt consilia urbis delendae, plans have been formed for destroying the city (of the city to be destroyed). Cic. Numa sacerdotibus creandis animum adjecit, Numa gave his attention to the appointment of priests. Liv.

Note.—A noun (or pronoun) and a Gerundive in agreement with it form the Ge-rundive Construction.

544. The Gerundive Construction may be used—

1. In place of a Gerund with a direct object. It then takes the case of the Gerund whose place it supplies:

Libīdō ējus videndī (= libīdō eum videndī), the desire of seeing him (lit., of him to be seen). Cic. Platonis audiendī (= Platonem audiendī) studiosus, fond of hearing Plato. Cic. Legendīs orātoribus (= legendō orātorēs), by reading the orators. Cic.

Note.—The Gerundive Construction should not be used for the Gerund with a neuter pronoun or adjective as object, as it could not distinguish the gender:

Artem vēra āc falsa dījūdicandī, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cic.

2. In the Dative and in the Ablative with a preposition:

Locum oppido condendo ceperunt, they selected a place for founding a city. Liv. Tempora demetendos fructibus accommodata, seasons suitable for gathering fruits. Cic. Brutus in liberanda patria est interfectus, Brutus was slain in liberating his country. Cic.

¹ The Ablative of the Gerund is used most frequently after \tilde{a} (ab), $d\tilde{e}$, ex (\tilde{e}), in; rarely after cum, $pr\tilde{o}$, and super.

NOTE 1.—The learner will remember that in the *Dative* (542, II., note) and in the *Ablative with a preposition* (542, IV., note!) the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare. The *Gerundive Construction* supplies its place.

NOTE 2.—The Gerundive Construction sometimes denotes purpose or tendency, especially in the Accusative after verbs of giving, permitting, taking, etc.:

Attribuit Îtaliam vastandam (for ad vastandum) Catilinae, he assigned Italy to Catiline to ravage (to be ravaged). Cic. Firmandae valētūdinī in Campāniam concessit, he withdrew into Campania to confirm his health. Tac. Hace trādendae Hannibalī vīctōriae sunt, these things are for the purpose of giving victory to Hannibal. Liv. Proficīscitur cōgnōscendae antīquitātis, he sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity. Tac.

Note 3.—The Gerundive Construction in the Dative occurs after certain official names, as decemviri, triumviri, comitia: 1

Decemviros legibus scribendīs creāvimus, we have appointed a committee of ten to prepare laws. Liv.

Note 4.—The Gerundive Construction in the Ablative occurs after comparatives:

Nüllum officium referendä grätiä magis necessarium est, no duty is more necessary than that of returning a favor. Cic.

NOTE 5.—The Gerundive Construction is in general admissible only in transitive verbs, but it occurs in utor, fruor, fungor, potior, etc., originally transitive:

Ad mūnus fungendum, for discharging the duty. Cic. Spēs potiundörum castrōrum, the hope of getting possession of the camp. Caes.

III. SUPINES.

545. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verbal noun. It has a form in um and a form in ū.

Note 1.—The Supine in um is an Accusative; that in \bar{u} is generally an Ablative, though sometimes perhaps a Dative,²

Note 2.—The Supine in um governs the same case as the verb:

Lēgātōs mittunt rogātum auxilium, they send ambassadors to ask aid. Caes.

RULE LIX.-Supine in Um.

546. The Supine in *um* is used with verbs of motion to express Purpose:

Lēgātī vēnērunt rēs repetītum, deputies came to demand restitution. Liv. Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, they came to Caesar to congratulate him. Caes.

1. The Supine in um occurs in a few instances after verbs which do not directly express motion:

Fīliam Agrippae nüptum dedit, he gave his daughter in marriage to Agrippa. Suet.

2. The Supine in um with the verb $e\bar{o}$ is equivalent to the forms of the first Periphrastic Conjugation, and may often be rendered literally:

Bonös omnës perditum eunt, they are going to destroy all the good. Sall.

¹ But in most instances the Dative may be explained as dependent either upon the verb or upon the predicate as a whole; see 384, 4.

² See Hübschmann, p. 228; Draeger, II., p. 833; Jolly, p. 201.

Note —But in subordinate clauses the Supine in um with the verb $e\bar{o}$ is often used for the simple verb:

Ultum īre (= ulcīscī) injūriās festīnat, he hastens to avenge the injuries. Sall.

3. The Supine in um with iri, the Infinitive Passive of eo, forms, it will be remembered (222, III., 1), the Future Passive Infinitive:

Brūtum vīsum īrī ā mē puto, I think Brutus will be seen by me. Cic.

- 4. The Supine in um is not very common; 1 but purpose may be denoted by other constructions:
 - 1) By ut or quī with the Subjunctive; see 497.
 - 2) By Gerunds or Gerundives; see 542, I., note 2, and III., note 2; 544, 2, note 2,
 - 3) By Participles; see 549, 3.

RULE LX.-Supine in ū.

547. The Supine in \bar{u} is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (424):

Quid est tam jūcundum audītū, what is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)? Cic. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell. Cic. Dē genere mortis difficile dictū est, it is difficult to speak of the kind of death. Cic. Cīvitās incrēdibile memorātū est quantum crēverit, it is incredible to relate how much the state increased. Sall. Pudet dictū, it is a shame to tell. Tac.

Note.—The Supine in \bar{u} never governs an oblique case, but it may take an Ablative with a preposition, as in the third example above.

- The Supine in \(\vec{u}\) is used chiefly with j\(\vec{u}\)cundus, optimus; facilis, pr\(\vec{o}\)clivis, difficilis; incr\(\vec{e}\)dibilis, memor\(\vec{u}\)bilis; honestus, turpis; d\(\vec{t}\)gnus, ind\(\vec{u}\)gnus; f\(\vec{u}\)s, nef\(\vec{u}\)s, optimus; rarely with verbs.
- 2. The Supine in \bar{u} is very rare. The most common examples are $aud\bar{x}t\bar{u}$, $dict\bar{u}$, $fact\bar{u}$, $n\bar{x}t\bar{u}$, $v\bar{s}s\bar{u}$; less common, $c\bar{c}gnit\bar{u}$, $intell\bar{e}ct\bar{u}$, $invent\bar{u}$, $memorat\bar{u}$, $relat\bar{u}$, $sc\bar{t}t\bar{u}$, $tractat\bar{u}$, $v\bar{c}ct\bar{u}$.

IV. Participles.

548. The Participle is a verbal adjective which governs the same cases as the verb:

Animus se non videns alia cernit, the mind, though it does not see itself (lit., not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic.

Note 1. For Participles used substantively, see 441.

Note 2.—Particip'es used substantively sometimes retain the adverbial modifiers which belonged to them as participles, and sometimes take adjective modifiers:

Non tam praemia sequi recte factorum quam ipsa recte facta, not to seek the rewards of good deeds (things rightly done) so much as good deeds themselves. Cic. Praeclarum atque divinum factum, an excellent and divine deed. Cic.

549. Participles are often used—

1. To denote Time, Cause, Manner, Means:

¹ According to Draeger, II., p. 829, the Supine in um is found in only two hundred and thirty-six verbs, mostly of the First and Third Conjugations.

 $^{^2}$ According to Draeger, II., p. 883, the Supine in \bar{n} is found in one hundred and nine verbs.

Plato scribens mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Ituri in proelium canunt, they sing when about to go into battle. Tac. Sol oriens diem conficit, the sun by its rising causes the day. Cic. Milites renuntiant, se perfidiam veritos revertisse, the soldiers report that they returned because they feared perfidy (having feared). Caes.

. 2. To denote Condition or Concession:

Mendācī hominī ne vērum quidem dicentī crēdere non solomus, we are not wont to believe a liar, even if he speaks the truth. Cic. Reluctante nātūrā, irritus labor est, if nature opposes, effort is vain. Sen. Scrīpta tua jam diū exspectāns, non audeo tamen flāgitāre, though I have been long expecting your work, yet I do not dare to ask for it. Cic.

3. To denote Purpose:

Perseus rediit, bellī cāsum tentātūrus, Perseus returned to try (about to try) the fortune of war. Liv. Attribuit nos trucidandos Cethēgō, he assigned us to Cethegus to slaughter. Cic.

4. To supply the place of Relative Clauses:

Omnes aliud agentes, aliud simulantes, improbī sunt, all who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest. Cic.

5. To supply the place of Principal Clauses:

Clässem devictam cepit, he conquered and took the fleet (took the fleet conquered). Nep. Re consentientes, vocabulis differebant, they agreed in fact, but differed in words. Cic.

Note 1.-A participle with a negative is often best rendered by a participial noun and the preposition without:

Miserum est, nihil pröficientem angī, it is sad to be troubled without accomplishing anything. Cic. Non ērubēscēns, without blushing. Cic.

Note 2.—The perfect participle is often best rendered by a participial or verbal noun with of \div

Homerus fuit ante Romam conditam, Homer lived (was) before the found-ing of Rome (before Rome founded). Cic.

550. The Tenses of the Participle—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, and future relatively to that of the principal verb:

Oculus se non videns alia cernit, the eye, though it does not see itself (not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic. Plató scribens mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Ūva mātūrāta dulcēscit, the grape, when it has ripened (having ripened), becomes sweet. Cic. Sapiens bona semper placitūra laudat, the wise man praises blessings which will always please (being about to please). Sen.

NOTE 1.—The perfect participle, both in deponent and in passive verbs, is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense, and is best rendered by a verbal noun:

Eisdem ducibus üsus Numidās mittit, employing the same persons as guides, he sent the Numidians. Caes. Incēnsās perfert nāvēs, he reports the burning of the ships (the ships set on fire). Verg. See also 544.

Note 2.—In the compound tenses the perfect participle often becomes virtually a predicate adjective expressing the result of the action:

Causae sunt cognitae, the causes are known. Caes. See also 471, 6, note 1.

Note 3.—For the Perfect Participle with habeo, see 388, 1, note.

Note 4.—The want of a perfect active participle is sometimes supplied by a temporal clause, and sometimes by a perfect passive participle in the Ablative Absolute:

Caesar, postquam venit, Rhenum transire constituit, Caesar, having arrived, decided to cross the Rhine. Caes. Equitatu praemisso subsequebatur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Caes. See also 431; 519.

NOTE 5.—The want of a present passive participle is generally supplied by a temporal clause:

Cum à Catône laudābar, reprehendī mē ā cēterīs patiēbar, being praised by Cato, 1 allowed myself to be censured by the others. Cic.

CHAPTER VI.

SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.

RULE LXI.-Use of Adverbs.

551. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs:

Sapientës fëliciter vivunt, the wise live happily. Cic. Facile doctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Haud aliter, not otherwise. Verg.

NOTE 1.—For predicate adverbs with sum, see 360, note 2; for adverbs with nouns used adjectively, see 441, 3; for adverbs in place of adjectives, see 443, notes 3 and 4; for adverbs with participles used substantively, see 548, note 2.

Note 2.— $S\bar{i}e$ and ita mean 'so,' 'thus.' Ita has also a limiting sense, 'in so far,' as in $ita-s\bar{i}$ (507, 3, note 2). $Ade\bar{o}$ means 'to such a degree or result'; tam, tantopere, 'so much'—tam used mostly with adjectives and adverbs, and tantopere with verbs.

552. The common negative particles are non, ne, haud.

- 1. Non is the usual negative; $n\bar{z}$ is used in prohibitions, wishes, and purposes (483, 3; 488; 497), and haud, in haud sciō an, and with adjectives and adverbs: haud mirābile, not wonderful; haud aliter, not otherwise. Nī for nē is rare. Nē non after vidē is often best rendered whether.
- 2. In non modo non and in non solum non the second non is generally omitted before sed or verum, followed by ne-quidem or vix (rarely etiam), when the verb of the second clause belongs also to the first:

Assentation no modo amico, sed ne libero quidem digna est, flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man. Cic.

3. Minus often has nearly the force of non; sī minus = sī non. Sīn aliter has nearly the same force as sī minus. Minimē often means 'not at all,' 'by no means.'

553. Two Negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English:

Nihil non arroget, let him claim everything. Hor. Neque hoc Zeno non vIdit, nor did Zeno overlook this. Cic.

1. $N\bar{e}n$ before a general negative gives it the force of an indefinite affirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative:

Nönnemő, some one; nönnihil, something; nönnünquam, sometimes; Nemő nön, every one; nihil nön, everything; nünquam nön, always.

2. After a general negative, nē-quidem gives emphasis to the negation, and neque -neque, nēve-nēve, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Non praetereundum est ne id quidem, we must not pass by even this. Cic. Nemo unquam neque poeta neque orator fuit, no one was ever either a poet or an orator. Cic. Note.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432-435.

554. Coördinate Conjunctions unite similar constructions (309, 1). They comprise five classes.

I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote UNION:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Pollux. Cic. Senatus populusque, the senate and people. Cic. Nec crat difficile, nor was it difficult. Liv.

- 1. For list, see 310, 1.
- 2. Et simply connects; que implies a more intimate relationship; atque and āc generally give prominence to what follows. Neque and nec have the force of et non. Et and etiam sometimes mean even.

Note. — Atque and āc generally mean as, than, after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness: tālis āc 'such as'; acque āc, 'equally as'; aliter atque, 'otherwise than.' See also 451, 5.

- 3. Que is an enclitic, and $\bar{a}c$ in the best prose is used only before consonants.
- 4. Etiam, quoque, adeô, and the like, are sometimes associated with et, atque, &c, and que, and sometimes even supply their place. Quoque follows the word which it connects: is quoque, 'he also.' Etiam, 'also,' 'further,' 'even,' often adds a new circumstance.
- 5. Sometimes two copulatives are used: et-et, que-que, 1 et-que, que-et, que-atque, 1 et-que, que-et, que-e
- 6. Between two words connected copulatively the conjunction is generally expressed, though sometimes omitted, especially between the names of two colleagues. Between several words it is in the best prose generally repeated or omitted altogether, though que may be used with the last even when the conjunction is omitted between the others: pāx et tranquillitās et concordia, or pāx, tranquillitās, concordia, or pāx, tranquillitās, concordiaque.

Note 1.—Et is often omitted between conditional clauses, except before $n\bar{o}n$.

Note 2.—A series may begin with prīmum or prīmō, may be continued by deinde followed by tum, posteū, praetereā, or some similar word, and may close with dēnique

¹ Que—que is rare, except in poetry; que—atque, rare even in poetry; see Verg., Aen., I., 18; Geor., I., 182.

or $postrem\delta.^1$ Deinde may be repeated several times between primum and denique or $postrem\delta.^2$

II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote SEPARATION:

Aut vestra aut sua culpa, either your fault or his own. Liv. Duabus tribusve horis, in two or three hours. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 2,
- 2. Aut denotes a stronger antithesis than vel, and must be used if the one supposition excludes the other: aut vērum aut falsum, 'either true or false.' Vel implies a difference in the expression rather than in the thing. It is generally corrective, and is often followed by potius, etiam, or dīcam: laudātur, vel etiam amātur, 'he is praised, or even (rather) loved.' It sometimes means even, and sometimes for example. Velut often means for example. Ve for vel is appended as an enclitic.

Note.—In negative clauses aut and ve often continue the negation: $n\bar{o}n$ honor aut $virt\bar{u}s$, 'neither (not) honor nor virtue.'

3. Sire (si-ve) does not imply any real difference or opposition; it often connects different names of the same object; Pallas sive Minerva, 'Pallas or Minerva' (another name of the same goddess).

Note.—Disjunctive conjunctions are often combined as correlatives: aut—aut, vel —vel, etc., 'either—or.'

III. Adversative Conjunctions denote opposition or contrast:

Cupiō mē esse clēmentem, sed mē inertiae condemnō, I vish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction. Cic. Magnēs ferrum ad sē trahit, rationem autem adferre nōn possumus, the magnet attracts iron, but we can not assign a reason. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 3.
- 2. Sed and vērum mark a direct opposition; autem and vērō only a transition; at emphasizes the opposition; atqui often introduces an objection; cēterum means 'but still,' 'as to the rest'; tamen, 'yet.'

Note.—Sed and vērum are sometimes resumptive; see IV., 3, below:

Sed age, responde, but come, reply. Plant.

- 3. Attamen, sedtamen, vēruntamen, 'but yet,' are compounds of tamen.
- Autem and vērō are postpositive, i. e., they are placed after one or more words in their clauses.

IV. ILLATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote INFERENCE:

In umbrā igitur pūgnābimus, we shall therefore fight in the shade. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 4.
- 2. Certain other words, sometimes classed with adverbs and sometimes with conjunctions, are also illatives, as $e\bar{o}$, $ide\bar{o}$, $ideirc\bar{o}$, $proptere\bar{a}$, quamobrem, $qu\bar{a}propter$, $quare\bar{e}$, $qu\bar{o}circ\bar{a}$.
- 8. Igitur generally follows the word which it connects: hie igitur, 'this one therefore.' After a digression, igitur, sed, sed tamen, vērum, vērum tamen, etc., are often used to resume an interrupted thought or construction. They may often be rendered 'I say': Sed sī quis, 'if any one, I say.'

¹ For examples, see Cic., Fam., XV., 14; Div., II., 56.

² Cicero, Inv., II., 49, has a series of ten members in which *primum* introduces the first member, *postrēmō* the last, and *deinde* each of the other eight.

V. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote CAUSE:

Difficile est consilium, sum enim solus, counsel is difficult, for I am alone. Cic. Etenim jūs amant, for they love the right. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 5,
- 2. Etenim and namque denote a closer connection than enim and nam.
- 8. Enim is postpositive; see 554, III., 4.

555. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions (309, 2). They comprise eight classes.

I. TEMPORAL CONJUNCTIONS denote TIME:

Păruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Dum ego in Siciliă sum, while I am in Sicily. Cic. See also 311, 1; 518-521.

- 1. Dum added to a negative means yet; nondum, 'not yet'; vixdum, 'scarcely yet.'
- II. COMPARATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote COMPARISON:

Ut optāstī, ita est, it is as you desired. Cic. Velut sī adesset, as if he were present. Caes. See also 311, 2; 513, II.

1. Correlatives are often used: Tam-quam, 'as,' 'so—as,' 'as much—as'; tam-quam quad $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$, 'as much as possible'; $n\bar{e}n$ minus-quam, 'not less than'; $n\bar{e}n$ magis-quam, 'not more than.'

Tam-quam and ut—ita with a superlative are sometimes best rendered by the with the comparative: ut $m\bar{u}xim\bar{e}$ —ita $m\bar{u}xim\bar{e}$, 'the more—the more.'

- III. CONDITIONAL CONJUNCTIONS denote condition:
- Sī peccāvī, īgnōsce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Nisi est consilium domī, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. See also 311, 3; 506-513.
- 1. Nisi, 'if not,' in negative sentences often means 'except'; and nisi quod, 'except that,' may be used even in affirmative sentences. Nisi may mean 'than.' Nihil aliud nisi = 'nothing further' (more, except); nihil aliud quam = 'nothing else' (other than).
 - IV. Concessive Conjunctions denote concession:

Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand. Cic. Etsi nihil habeat, although he has nothing. Cic. See also 311, 4; 514; 515.

V. FINAL CONJUNCTIONS denote PURPOSE:

Esse oportet, ut vīvās, it is necessary to eat, that you may live. Cic. See also 311, 5; 497-499.

VI. Consecutive Conjunctions denote consequence or result:

Atticus ita vīxit, ut Athēniensibus esset cārissimus, Atticus so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Sec also 311, 6; 500-504.

VII. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote CAUSE:

Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. See also 311, 7; 516; 517.

VIII. Interrogative Conjunctions or Particles denote inquiry or question:

Quaesierās, nonne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. See also 311, 8; 351-353; 529.

- 556. Interjections are sometimes used entirely alone, as *èheu*, 'alas!' and sometimes with certain cases of nouns; see 381, with note 3.
- 557. Various parts of speech, and even oaths and imprecations, sometimes have the force of interjections:

Pāx (peace), be still! miscrum, miscrābile, sad, lamentable! ōrō, pray! age, agite, come, well! mehercules, by Hercules! per deum fidem, in the name of the gods! sōdēs = sī audēs (for audiēs), if you will hear!

CHAPTER VII.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

558. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

I. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in CASE (362):

Brūtus cūstos lībertātis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty.

II. An Appositive agrees in CASE with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies (363):

Cluilius rex moritur, Cluilius the king dies.

NOMINATIVE. -- VOCATIVE.

III. The Subject of a Finite verb is put in the Nominative (368): Servius regnavit, Servius reigned.

IV. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (369):

Pērge, Laelī, proceed, Laelius.

ACCUSATIVE.

V. The DIRECT OBJECT of an action is put in the Accusative (371):

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world.

VI. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing (373):

Hamilcarem imperatorem fecerunt, they made Hamilcar commander.

VII. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing admit two Accusatives—one of the *person* and the other of the *thing* (374):

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion.

VIII. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application (378):

Capita vēlāmur, we have our heads veiled.

IX. DURATION OF TIME and EXTENT OF SPACE are expressed by the Accusative (379):

Septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annōs, he reigned thirty-seven years. Quīnque mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk five miles.

X. The Place to which is designated by the Accusative (380):

I. Generally with a preposition-ad or in:

Legiones ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome.

XI. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations (381):

Heu mê miserum, ah me unhappy!

DATIVE.

XII. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It is used (384)—

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Tibř serviō, I am devoted to you.

II. With TRANSITIVE verbs, in connection with the DIRECT OBJECT:

Agros plebī dedit, he gave lands to the common people.

XIII. Two Datives—the object to which and the object or end for which—occur with a few verbs (390):

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Malo est hominibus avaritia, avarice is an evil to men.

II. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp.

XIV. With adjectives, the OBJECT TO WHICH the quality is directed is put in the Dative (391):

Omnibus cārum est, it is dear to all.

XV. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs (392):

I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Jūstitia est obtemperātiŏ lēgibus, justice is obedience to laws.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:

Congruenter naturae vivere, to live in accordance with nature.

GENITIVE.

XVI. Any noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive (395):

Catonis orationes, Cato's orations.

XVII. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning (399):

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise.

XVIII. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive (401):

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy.

XIX. The Genitive is used (406)—

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserère laborum, pity the labors.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor:

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past.

III. With refert and interest:

Interest omnium, it is the interest of all.

XX. The Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs (409):

I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:

Te amīcitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:

Viros sceleris arguis, you accuse men of crime.

III. With miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget:

Eōrum nōs miseret, we pity them.

ABLATIVE PROPER.

XXI. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative (412):

I. Generally with a preposition—ā, ab, dē, or ex:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city.

II. In NAMES OF TOWNS without a preposition:

Platonem Athenis arcessivit, he summoned Plato from Athens.

XXII. Separation. Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition (413):

Caedem ā vöbīs dēpellō, I ward off slaughter from you. Hŏc audīvī dē parente meō, I heard this from my father. Ars ūtilitāte laudātur, an art is praised because of its usefulness.

XXIII. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative (417):

Nihil est amābilius virtūte, nothing is more lovely than virtue.

INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

XXIV. The Ablative is used (419)-

I. To denote Accompaniment. It then takes the preposition cum:

Vīvit cum Balbō, he lives with Balbus.

II. To denote CHARACTERISTIC or QUALITY. It is then modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:

Summā virtūte adulēscēns, a youth of the highest virtue.

III. To denote Manner. It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:

Cum virtute vixit, he lived virtuously.

XXV. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative (420):

Cornibus taurī sē tūtantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns.

XXVI. The Ablative is used (421)—

I. With utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimīs rēbus fruimur et ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things.

II. With VERBS and ADJECTIVES OF PLENTY:

Villa abundat lacte, caseo, melle, the villa abounds in milk, cheese, and honey.

III. With dignus, indignus, and contentus:

Dīgnī sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship.

XXVII. PRICE is generally denoted by the Ablative (422):

Vēndidit auro patriam, he sold his country for gold.

XXVIII. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative (423):

Ūnō diē longiōrem mēnsem faciunt, they make the month one day longer.

XXIX. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application (424):

Nomine, non potestate, fuit rex, he was king in name, not in power.

LOCATIVE ABLATIVE.

XXX. The Place in which is denoted (425)-

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in:

Hannibal in Ĭtaliā fuit, Hannibal was in Italy.

II. In Names of Towns by the *Locative*, if such a form exists, otherwise by the *Locative Ablative*:

Romae fuit, he was at Rome.

XXXI. The Time of an action is denoted by the Ablative (429):

Octogesimo anno est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year.

XXXII. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance (431):

Servio regnante viguerunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

XXXIII. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions (432):

Ad amīcum, to a friend. In Ĭtaliā, in Italy.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, AND VERBS.

XXXIV. An adjective agrees with its noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE (438):

Fortuna caeca est, fortune is blind.

XXXV. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person (445):

Animal, quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood.

XXXVI. A finite verb agrees with its subject in NUMBER and PERSON (460):

Ego rēgēs ējēcī, I have banished kings.

USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

XXXVII. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (474):

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world.

Moods and Tenses in Principal Clauses.

XXXVIII. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS DESIRED (483):

Valeant cīvēs, may the citizens be well.

XXXIX. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS POSSIBLE (485):

Hic quaerat quispiam, here some one may inquire.

XL. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties (487):

Jüstitiam cole, practice justice.

Moods and Tenses in Subordinate Clauses.

XLI. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical upon historical (491):

Enititur ut vincat, he strives to conquer.

XLII. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose (497)-

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.:

Missī sunt quī (= ut $i\bar{i}$) consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.

II. With ut, nē, quō, quōminus:

Enītitur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer.

XLIII. The Subjunctive is used to denote Result (500)—

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, cur, etc.:

Non is sum quī $(=ut\ ego)$ hīs ūtar, $I\ am\ not\ such\ a\ one\ as\ to\ use\ these\ things.$

II. With ut, ut non, quin:

Ita vīxit ut Athēniensibus esset cārissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians.

XLIV. Conditional sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, take (507)—

I. The Indicative in both clauses to assume the supposed case:

Sī spīritum ducit, vīvit, if he breathes, he is alive.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Dies deficiat, si velim causam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Plūribus verbīs ad tē scrīberem, sī rēs verba dēsīderāret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words.

XLV. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive (513)—

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum nē, modo nē, dummodo nē, 'if only not,' 'provided that not':

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains.

II. With āc sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habēbō, āc sī serīpsissēs, I shall regard it just as it (i. e., as I should if) you had written.

XLVI. Concessive clauses take (515)-

I. Generally the Indicative in the best prose, when introduced by quamquam:

Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand.

II. The Indicative or Subjunctive when introduced by etsì, etiamsì, tametsì, or sì, like conditional clauses with sì:

Etsī nihil seið quod gaudeam, though I know no reason why I should rejoice.

III. The Subjunctive when introduced by licet, quamvis, ut, $n\bar{e}$, cum, or the relative $qu\bar{u}$:

Licet irrideat, though he may deride.

XLVII. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quandō, generally take (516)—

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively on one's own authority:

Quoniam supplication decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:

Socrates accusatus est, quod corrumperet juventūtem, Socrates was accused, because he corrupted the youth.

XLVIII. Causal clauses with *cum* and *quī* generally take the Subjunctive in writers of the best period (517):

Cum vīta metūs plēna sit, since life is full of fear.

XLIX. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, ubĭ, ut, simul atque, etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used (518):

Postquam vidit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc.

L. I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of while, as long as, take the Indicative (519):

Haec fēcī, dum licuit, I did this while it was allowed.

II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—

- 1. The Indicative, when the action is viewed as an actual fact: Dēlīberā hŏc, dum ego redeō, consider this until I return.
- 2. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Different, dum defervescat ira, let them defer it till their anger cools.

- LI. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam (520)—
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and Pluperfect is put-
- 1. In the Indicative, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something presided, proposed, or conceived:

Antequam de re publica dicam, before I (can) speak of the republic.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive:

Antequam urbem caperent, before they took the city.

- LII. In temporal clauses with cum (521)-
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the INDICATIVE:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent, they approve.

- II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put-
- 1. In the Indicative, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:

Pāruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action:

Cum epistulam complicărem, while I was folding the letter.

- LIII. The principal clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming Indirect take the Infinitive or Subjunctive as follows (523):
 - I. When Declarative, they take the Infinitive with a Subject Accusative: Dicebat animos essed ivinos, he was wont to say that souls are divine.
 - II. When Interrogative, they take-
 - 1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulăta Caesaris respondit, quid sibĭ vellet, cūr venīret, to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come?

2. Sometimes the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*, as in rhetorical questions:

Docebant rem esse testimonio, etc.; quid esse levius, they showed that the fact was a proof, etc.; what was more inconsiderate?

III. When IMPERATIVE, they take the Subjunctive:

Scrībit Labieno cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to some (that he should come) with a legion.

LIV. The subordinate clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE, on becoming Indirect, take the Subjunctive (524):

Respondit se id quod in Nerviis fecisset facturum, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii.

LV. The Subjunctive is used (529)-

I. In indirect questions:

Quaeritur, cur doctissimi homines dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indignius est quam eum qui culpa careat supplició non carere, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment.

INFINITIVE.

LVI. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning (533):

Haec vītāre cupimus, we desire to avoid these things.

LVII. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive (534):

Te sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise.

LVIII. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject (536):

Platonem Tarentum venisse reperio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum.

SUPINE.

LIX. The Supine in *um* is used with verbs of motion to express PURPOSE (546):

Lēgātī vēnērunt rēs repetītum, deputies came to demand restitution.

LX. The Supine in \bar{u} is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (547):

Quid est tam jucundum audītu, what is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)?

ADVERBS.

LXI. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (551):

Sapientës fëliciter vivunt, the wise live happily.

CHAPTER VIII.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.

559. The Latin admits of great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis, and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

I. ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

General Rules.

560. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sõl oriens diem conficit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic. Animus aeger semper errat, a diseased mind always errs. Cic. Miltiades Athēnās līberāvit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep.

- 561. EMPHASIS and EUPHONY affect the arrangement of words.
- I Any word, except the subject, may be made emphatic by being placed at the BEGINNING of the sentence:

Silent legës inter arma, laws are silent in war. Cic. Numitöri Remus déditur, Remus is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. Any word, except the predicate, may be made emphatic by being placed at the END of the sentence:

Nobis non satisfacit ipse Demosthenes, even Demosthenes does not satisfy us. Cic. Consulatum petivit nunquam, he never sought the consulship. Cic.

III. Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its Genitive, are sometimes made *emphatic* by Separation:

Objūrgātiones nonnunquam incidunt necessariae, sometimes necessary RE-PROOFS occur. Cic. Jūstitiae fungātur officiis, let him discharge the duties of tustice. Cic.

Note,—A word may be made emphatic by being placed between the parts of a compound tense:

Magna adhibita cura est, great care has been taken. Cic.

562. Chiasmus. —When two groups of words are contrasted, the order of the first is often reversed in the second:

¹ So called from the Greek letter X.

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet, the imperishable soul moves the perishable body. Cic.

563. KINDRED WORDS.—Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other:

Ad senem senex de senectute scripsi, I, an old man, wrote to an old man on the subject of old age. Cic. Inter se alies alie prosunt, they benefit each wher. Cic.

- 564. A word which has a COMMON RELATION to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed—
 - I. Generally before or after both:

Pācis et artēs et glōria, both the arts and the glory of peace. Liv. Belli pācisque artēs, the arts of war and of peace. Liv.

Note.—A Genitive or an adjective following two nouns may qualify both, but it more frequently qualifies only the latter:

Haec percunctatio ac denuntiatio belli, this inquiry and this declaration of war. Liv.

II. Sometimes directly after the first before the conjunction:

Honoris certamen et gloriae, a struggle for honor and glory. Cic. Agrī omnēs et maria, all lands and seas. Cic.

Special Rules.

565. The Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it. They may be either adjectives or nouns:

Populus Romanus decrevit, the Roman people decreed. Cic. Herodotus, pater historiae, Herodotus, the father of history. Cic. Liber de officis, the book on duties. Cic.

- 1. Modifiers, when emphatic, are placed before their nouns:
- Tuscus ager Römänö adjacet, the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman. Liv.
- 2. When a noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, the usual order is, Adjective—Genitive—noun:

Māgna cīvium pēnūria, a great scarcity of citizens. Cic.

- 8. An adjective is often separated from its noun by a monosyllabic preposition:
- Magno cum perículo esse, to be attended with great peril. Cic.
- 4. In the poets an adjective is often separated from its noun by the modifier of another noun:

Înspērāta tuae veniet plūma superbiae, the unexpected down shall come upon your pride. Hor.

566. The Modifiers of an Adjective generally precede it, but, if not adverbs, they may follow it:

Facile doctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Omnī aetātī commūnis, common to every age. Cic. Avidus laudis, desirous of praise Cic.

567. The Modifiers of a Verb generally precede it:

Gloria virtutem sequitur, glory follows virtue. Cic. Mundus deo paret, the world is subject to God. Cic. Vehementer dixit, he spoke vehemently. Cic.

- 1. When the verb is placed at the beginning of the sentence, the modifiers, of course, follow; see the first example under 561, I.
- 2. An *emphatic* modifier may of course stand at the beginning or at the end of the sentence (561):

Facillimē cognoscuntur adulescentes, most easily are the young men recognized. Cic.

3. Of two or more modifiers belonging to the same verb, that which in thought is most intimately connected with the verb stands next to it, while the others are arranged as emphasis and euphony may require:

Mors propter brevitätem vitae nänquam longë abest, death is never far distant, in consequence of the shortness of life. Cic.

568. The Modifiers of an Adverb generally precede it, but a Dative often follows it:

Valde vehementer dixit, he spoke very vehemently. Cic. Congruenter naturae vivit, he lives agreeably to nature. Cic.

- 569. Special Words.—Some words have a favorite place in the sentence, which they seldom leave. Thus—
 - I. The Demonstrative generally precedes its noun:

Custos hujus urbis, the guardian of this city. Cic.

1. Ille in the sense of well-known (450, 4) generally follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective:

Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea. Cic.

2. Pronouns are often brought together, especially quisque with suus or suī:

Jüstitia suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic. Qui sēsē student praestāre, etc., who are eager to excel, etc. Sall.

II. Propositions generally stand directly before their cases, but tonus and versus follow their cases:

In Asiam profugit, he fled into Asia. Cic. Collo tenus, up to the neck. Ov.

1. The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Res qua de agitur, the subject of which we are treating. Cic. Italiam contra, over against Italy. Verg. Corpus in Acacidae, into the body of Acacides. Verg.

2. For cum appended to an Ablative, see 184, 6; 187, 2.

3. Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations per is usually separated from its case by the Accusative of the object adjured, or by some other word; and sometimes the verb $\partial r \partial$ is omitted:

Post Alexandrī māgnī mortem, after the death of Alexander the Great. Cic. Ad bene vīvendum, for living well. Cic. Per ego hās lacrimās tē ōrō, I implore you by these tears. Verg. Per ego vōs deōs (= per deōs ego vōs ōrō), I pray you in the name of the gods. Curt.

III. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally stand at the beginning of such clauses; but autem, enim, quidem, quoque, vērō, and generally igitur, follow some other word:

Si peccăvi, ignosce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Ii qui superiores

sunt, those who are superior. Cic. Ipse autem omnia videbat, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

1. A conjunction may follow a relative or an emphatic word, and a relative may follow

Id ut audīvit, as he heard this. Nep. Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Trōjae quí primus ab ōrīs vēnit, who came first from the shores of Troy. Verg.

NOTE.—Certain conjunctions, as et, nec, sed, and even aut and rel, are more frequently removed from the beginning of the clause in poetry than in prose:

Compressus et omnis impetus, and all violence was checked. Verg.

2. Ne-quidem takes the emphatic word or words between the two parts:

Në in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns. Cic.

3. Quidem often follows pronouns, superlatives, and ordinals:

Ex me quidem nihil audiet, from me indeed he will hear nothing. Cic.

4. Que, ve, ne, introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word; but if that word is a preposition, they are often appended to the next word:

In foroque, and in the forum. Cic. Inter nosque, and among us. Cic.

IV. Non, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word; but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it sometimes stands at the beginning of the clause, and sometimes before the finite verb or before the auxiliary of a compound tense:

Hāc villā carēre non possunt, they are not able to do without this villa. Cic. Non fuit Juppiter metuendus, Jupiter was not to be feared. Cic. Fās non putant, they do not think it right. Cic. Pecūnia solūta non est, the money has not been paid. Cic.

1. In general, in negative clauses the negative word, whether particle, verb, or noun, is made prominent:

Negat quemquam posse, he denies that any one is able. Cic. Nihil est melius, nothing is better. Cic.

V. Inquam, sometimes āiō, introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted. The subject, if expressed, generally follows its verb:

Nihil, inquit Brūtus, quod dīcam, $nothing\ which\ I$ shall state, said Brutus. Cic.

VI. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Perge, Laeli, proceed, Laelius, Cic.

II. ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

570. Clauses connected by coördinate conjunctions (554) follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting, and the mountains are shaded. Verg. Gỹgès à nullo videbatur, ipse autem omnia videbat, Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

571. A clause used as the Subject of a complex sentence (348) generally stands at the *beginning* of the sentence, and a clause used as the Predicate at the *end*:

Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Exitus fuit orationis, sibi nullam cum his amicitiam esse, the close of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men. Caes.

- 1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence; see 560.
- Emphasis and euphony often have the same effect upon the arrangement of clauses as upon the arrangement of words; see 561.
- 572. Clauses used as the Subordinate Elements of complex sentences admit three different arrangements:
- I. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the subordinate elements of a simple sentence:

Hostes, ubi primum nostres equites conspexerunt, celeriter nostres perturbaverunt, the enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, quickly put our men to rout. Caes. Sententia, quae tutissima videbatur, vicit, the opinion which seemed the safest prevailed. Liv.

II. They are often placed before the principal clause:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are quiet, they approve. Cic. Qualis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

Note.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause. Hence temporal, conditional, and concessive clauses often precede the principal clause. Hence also, in sentences composed of correlative clauses with $is-qu\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}dits-qu\bar{\imath}dis$, tantus-quantus, tum-cum, ita-ut, etc., the relative member, i. e., the clause with $qu\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}dis$, quantus, cum, ut, etc., generally precedes.

III. They sometimes follow the principal clause:

Entitur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Cic. Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom. Cic.

Note.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause is either intimately connected in thought with the following sentence, or explanatory of the principal clause. Hence, clauses of *Purpose* and *Result* generally follow the principal clause, as in the examples.

573. LATIN PERIODS.—A complex sentence in which two or more subordinate clauses are inserted within the principal clause is called a Period in the strict sense of the term.

Note 1.—The examples given under 572, I., are short and simple examples of Latin Periods.

NOTE 2.—Many Latin periods consist of several carefully constructed clauses so united as to form one complete harmonious whole. For examples, see Cicero's Third Oration against Catiline, XII., 'Sed quoniam . . . providere'; also Livy, I., 6, 'Numitor, interprimum . . . ostendit.'

NOTE 3.—In a freer sense the term *Period* is sometimes applied to all complex sentences which end with principal clauses. In this sense the examples given under 572, II., are *Periods*. Many carefully elaborated Latin sentences are constructed in this way; see Cicero's Oration for the Poet Archias, I., 'Quod sī hace . . . döbömus'; also the First Oration against Catiline, XIII., 'Ut saepe hominës . . . ingravësect.'

PART FOURTH.

PROSODY.

574 Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

CHAPTER I.

QUANTITY.

575. The time occupied in pronouncing a syllable in poetry is called its quantity. Syllables are accordingly characterized as long, short, or common.²

I. GENERAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

576. A syllable is Long in Quantity—

I. If it contains a DIPHTHONG or a LONG VOWEL, or is the result of CONTRACTION:

haec, foedus; dūcō; cōgō (for coigō), occidō (for occaedō), nīl (for nihil).

1. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeacūtus.

II. If its vowel is followed by X or Z, or any Two Consonants except a mute and a liquid:

mājor, dux, servus, sunt, regunt, rēgnum, āgmen.

1. But one or both of the consonants must belong to the same word as the vowel: āb 4 sēde, per 4 saza.

Note 1.—H has no tendency in combination with any consonant to lengthen a preceding syllable. Hence in such words as *Achaeus*, Athēnae, the first syllable is short.

NOTE 2.—In the early poets a short final syllable ending in s remained short before a word beginning with a consonant; sometimes also short final syllables ending in other consonants; imāginis formam, enim vērē, erat dictā.

¹ In many cases the quantity of syllables may be best learned from the Dictionary, but in others the student may be greatly aided by certain general statements or rules.

² That is, sometimes long and sometimes short.

³ Here the syllable is *long by nature* if the vowel is long, but *long only by position* if the vowel is short. For the quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, see 651.

⁴ Here ab becomes long before s in sēde, and per before s in saxa.

⁵ Here the syllables is, im, and at remain short.

Note 3.—In the early poets many syllables long by position in the Augustan poets are sometimes short, as the first syllable of eece, ergō, ille, inter, omnis, unde, uxor.

NOTE 4.—A final syllable ending in a vowel is occasionally, though rarely, lengthened by consonants at the beginning of the following word.

NOTE 5.—In Greek words a syllable with a vowel before a mute and a nasal is sometimes short: cycnus, Tecmessa.

2. A syllable before j is long, except in bijugus, is, quadrijugus, is: see 16, N. 2.

577. A syllable is Short in Quantity if its vowel is followed in the same word by another Vowel, by a Diphthong, or by the aspirate H:

dies, doceo, viae, nihil.

- I. The following vowels, with the syllables which contain them, are long by Exception:
- 1. **A**—(1) in the Genitive ending $\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ of Dec. I.: $aul\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$; (2) in proper names in $\bar{a}ius$: $G\bar{a}ius$ (Gājus); (3) before ia, ie, io, iu, in the verb $\bar{a}i\bar{o}$.
- 2. **E**—(1) in the ending $\bar{v}\bar{i}$ of Dec. V. when preceded by a vowel: $di\bar{v}\bar{i}$; and sometimes when preceded by a consonant: $\hat{f}d\bar{v}\bar{i}$, $r\bar{e}\bar{i}$; often in the Dative Singular of the pronoun is: $\bar{e}\bar{i}$; (2) in proper names in $\bar{e}ius$: $Pomp\bar{e}ius$; (3) in $\bar{e}heu$, and in $Rh\bar{e}a$.
- 3. I—(1) in the verb $f\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$, when not followed by $er: f\bar{\imath}am$, $f\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}bam$, but $fer\bar{\imath};^2$ (2) in $d\bar{\imath}us$, a, um (for $d\bar{\imath}vus$, a, um); (3) generally in the Genitive ending $\bar{\imath}us: al\bar{\imath}us$, $ill\bar{\imath}us$; (4) sometimes in $D\bar{\imath}\bar{a}na$.
 - 4. O-sometimes in ŏhē.
- 5. In Greek words vowels are often long before a vowel, because long in the original: āēr, Acnēās, Brīsēis, Menelāus, Trões.

Note.—This often occurs in proper names in éa, îa, éus, îus, âōn, îôn, âis, ôis, ôius: Mēdēa, Alexandrīa, Pēnēus, Dārīus, Oriōn.

578. A syllable is COMMON IN QUANTITY if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid:

ager, agrī; pater, patris; duplex, triplex.

NOTE 1.—A syllable ending in a mute in the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part is long: ab-rumpō, ob-rogō.

Note 2.—In Plautus and Terence a syllable with a short vowel before a mute and a fiquid is short.

II. QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

579. Monosyllables are long:

ā, dā, tē, sē, dē, sī, quī, dō, prō, tū, dōs, pēs, sīs, bōs, sūs, pār, sōl.

¹ The name of the daughter of Numitor, and of a priestess in Vergil. In Kheā, another name for Cybelē, the e is short.

² Sometimes fieri in Plautus and Terence.

- I. The following are short by Exception:
- 1. Enclitics: que, ve, ne, ce, te, pse, pte.
- 2. Monosyllables in b, d, l, m, t: ab, ad, fel, sum, et; except sāl, sōl.
- 3. An, bis, cis, cor, es, fac, fer, in, is, nec, os (ossis), per, ter, qua (indet inite), quis, vir, vas (vadis), and sometimes htc and hoc in the Nominative and Accusative.
 - 580. In words of more than one syllable—
- I. The final vowels i, o, and u are long; a, e, and y, short:

marī, audī, servō, omnīnō, frūctū, cornū; via, maria, mare, misy.

II. Final syllables in c are long; in d, l, m, n, r, t, short: alec illuc; illud, consul, amem, carmen, amor, caput.

Non 1.-Donec and lien are exceptions.

Note 2.—Final sy'lables in n and r are long in many Greek words which end long in the original: as Titli, Anchisën, Hymën, Delphin, äër, aethër, crätër.

III. The final syllables as, es, and os are long; is, us, ys, short:

amās, mēnsās, monēs, nūbēs, servõs; avis, urbis, bonus, chlamys.

NOTE 1.—The learner will remember that short final syllables like is, us, etc., may be lengthened by being placed before a word beginning with a consonant; see 576, II.

Note 2.—Plautus retains the original quantity of many final syllables usually short in the Augustan age. Thus the endings \bar{a} , \bar{e} , $\bar{a}l$, $\bar{a}r$, $\bar{o}r$, $\bar{i}s$, $\bar{u}s$, $\bar{u}t$, $\bar{e}t$, $\bar{i}t$, often stand in place of the later endings a, e, al, ar, or, is, us, at, et, it (21). Some of these early forms are retained by Terence, and some of them occasionally occur in the Augustan poets.

Note 3.—Plautus and Terence, in consequence of the colloquial character of comedy, often shorten unaccented final syllables after an accented short syllable: ama, abi. dedi. domi. domo, viro, pedes.

Note 4.—In Plantus and Terence the doubling of a letter does not usually affect the quantity of the syllable: $\mathcal U$ in $i\mathcal U$ e, mm in $imm\tilde o$, pp in $opport\tilde un\tilde e$.

- 581. Numerous exceptions to the general rule for the quantity of final syllables occur even in classical Latin:
 - I. I final, usually Long, is sometimes short or common—
- 1. Short in nisi, quasi, cui (when a dissyllable), and in the Greek ending si of the Dative and Ablative Plural.
- 2. Common in $mih\tilde{i}$, $tib\tilde{i}$, $sib\tilde{i}$, $ib\tilde{i}$, $ub\tilde{i}$, and in the Dative and Vocative Singular of some Greek words.
 - II. O final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
- 1. In duo, ego, octo, eho, in the adverbs cito, ilico, modo, and its compounds, dummodo, quōmodo, etc., in cedo, and in the old form endo.

¹ U is short in indu and $n\check{e}nu$. Contracted syllables are long, according to 576, I.

- 2. Sometimes (1) in nouns of Dec. III. and (2) in verbs, though very rarely in the best poets.
 - III. A final, usually short, is Long-
 - 1. In the Ablative: mēnsā, bonā, illā.
 - 2. In the Vocative of Greek nouns in ās: Aenēā, Pallā.1
- 3. In Verbs and Particles: amā, cūrā; circā, juxtā, anteā, frūstrā. Except ita, quia, ēja, hēja, and puta used adverbially.
 - IV. E final, usually short, is LONG-
- In Dec. I. and V.,² and in Greek plurals of Dec. III.: epitomē; rē, diē; tempē, melė.
 - 2. Generally in the Dative ending \check{e} of Dec. III.: $aer\check{e}=aer\hat{\imath}$.
- 3. In the Singular Imperative Active of Conj. II.: monē, docē. But e is sometimes short in cavē, vidē, etc.3
- 4. In ferè, fermè, ôhè, and in adverbs from adjectives of Dec. II.: doctè, rèctò. Except bene, male, inferne, interne, superne.
 - V As final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
 - 1. In anas and in a few Greek nouns in as: Arcas, lampas.
 - 2. In Greek Accusatives of Dec. III.: Arcadas, hērōas.
 - VI. Es final, usually LONG, is SHORT-
- 1. In Nominatives Singular of Dec. III. with short increment (582) in the Genitive: mīlēs (itis), obses (idis), interpres (etis). Except abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, Cerēs, and compounds of pēs, as bipēs, tripēs, etc.
 - 2. In penes and the compounds of es, as ades, potes.
- 3. In Greek words—(1) in the plural of those which increase in the Genitive: Arcades, Trōades; (2) in a few neuters in es: Hippomenes; (3) in a few Vocatives Singular: Dēmosthenes.
 - VII. Os final, usually LONG, is SHORT—
 - 1. In compos, impos, exos.
 - 2. In Greek words with the ending short in the Greek: Delos, melos.
 - VIII. Is final, usually short, is LONG-
 - 1. In plural cases: $m\bar{e}ns\bar{i}s$, $serv\bar{i}s$, $v\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$. Hence $for\bar{i}s$, $gr\bar{a}t\bar{i}s$, $ingr\bar{a}t\bar{i}s$.
- In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: Quirīs (ītis), Salamīs (īnis).
 - 3. In the Singular Present Indic. Act. of Conj. IV.: audis.

Note.—Māvīs, quīvīs, utervīs, follow the quantity of vīs.

- 4. In the Singular Present Subj. Act.: possīs, velīs, nolīs, mālīs.
- 1 Sometimes in the Vocative of Greek nouns in as and ēs.
- 2 Hence, in the compounds, hodiē, prīdiē, postrīdiē, quārē.
- ³ In the comic poets many dissyllable Imperatives with a short penult shorten the attimate: as habe, jube, mane, move, tace, tene. etc.

5. Sometimes in the Singular of the Future Perfect and of the Perfect Subjunctive: amāveršs, docueršs.

IX. Us final, usually short, is LONG-

1. In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: virtūs (ūtis), tellūs (ūris).

Note.—But palus (u short) occurs in Horace, Ars Poētica, 65.

- 2. In Dec. IV., in the Genitive Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural: frūctūs.
 - 3. In Greek words ending long in the original: Panthūs, Sapphūs, tripūs.

 Note.—But we have Oedipus and pŏtypus.

III. QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS.

- 582. A word is said to *increase* in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the Nominative Singular, and to have as many *increments of declension* as it has additional syllables: sermŏ, sermōnis, sermōnibus.¹
- 583. A verb is said to *increase* in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the Present Indicative Active, and to have as many *increments of conjugation* as it has additional syllables: amās, amātis, amābātis.²
- 584. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult; if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the *first* increment, and those following this are called successively the *second*, third, and fourth increments.³

Increments of Declension.

585. In the Increments of Declension, a and o are long; e, i, u, and y, short:

aetās, aetātibus; sermō, sermōnis; puer, puerī, puerōrum; fulgur, fulguris; chlamys, chlamydis; bonus, bonārum, bonōrum; ille, illārum, illōrum; miser, miserī; supplex, supplicis; satur, saturī.

I. A, usually Long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment—5

 $^{^1}$ Sermönis, having one syllable more than sermŏ, has one increment, while sermōnibus has two increments.

² Amātis has one increment, amābātis two.

³ In ser- $m\tilde{o}n$ -i-bus, the first increment is $m\tilde{o}n$, the second i; and in mon-u-e- $r\tilde{a}$ -mus, the first is u, the second e, the third $r\tilde{a}$.

 $^{^4\,}$ Y occurs only in Greek words, and is long in the increments of nouns in yn and of a few others.

⁶ Observe that the exceptions belong to the first increment.

- 1. Of masculines in al and ar: Hannibal, Hannibalis; Caesar, Caesaris.
- 2. Of nouns in s preceded by a consonant: daps, dapis; Arabs, Arabis; hiems, hiemis.
 - 3. Of Greek nouns in a and as: poēma, poēmatis; Pallas, Palladis.
- 4. Of (1) baccar, hēpar, jubar, lār, nectar, pār, and its compounds; (2) anas, mās, vas (vadis); (3) sāl, fax, and a few rare Greek words in ax.
- II. O, usually Long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment. $^{-1}$
- Of Neuters in Declension III.: aequor, aequoris; tempus, temporis. Except ōs (ōris), ador (adōris), and comparatives.
- Of words in s preceded by a consonant: inops, inopis. Except Cyclops and hydrops.
- 3. Of arbor, bos, lepus; compos, impos, memor, immemor; Allobrox, Cappadox, praecox.
 - 4. Of most Patrials : Macedo, Macedonis.
- 5. Of many Greek nouns—(1) those in $\delta r: rh\bar{\epsilon}t\bar{\delta}r$, $Hect\delta r$; (2) many in δ and δn increasing short in Greek: $a\bar{\epsilon}d\bar{\delta}n$, $a\bar{\epsilon}donis$; (3) in Greek compounds in $p\bar{u}s$ or $pus: trip\bar{u}s$ (odis), Oedipus.
- III. E, usually SHORT in the increments of declension, is LONG in the first increment.
- Of Declension V.: diēī, diērum, diēbus, rēbus. But in the Genitive and Dative Singular sometimes short after a consonant: fidēī, spēī.
- 2. Of nouns in ēn, mostly Greek: liēn, liēnis; Sīrēn, Sīrēnis. So Aniō, Aniēnis.
- Of Celtiber, Iber, vēr, hērēs, locuplēs, mercēs, quiēs, inquiēs, requiēs, plebs, lēx, rēx, ālēc, ālex, vervēx.
- 4. Of a few Greek words in es and er: lebes, lebetis; crater, crateris. Except aer and aether.
- IV. I, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment—
 - Of most words in īx: rādīx, rādīcis; fēlīx, fēlīcis.²
 - 2. Of dīs, glīs, līs, vīs, Quirīs, Samnīs.
 - 3. Of delphin, and a few rare Greek words.

Note.—For quantity of i in the ending ius, see 577, 3.

- V. U, usually short in the increments of declension, is Long in the first increment—
- Of nouns in ūs with the Genitive in ūris, ūtis, ūtis; jūs, jūris; salūs, salūtis; palūs, palūdis.³
 - 2. Of fūr, frūx, lūx, plūs, Pollūx.

See p. 342, foot-note 5.

² But short in appendix, calix, Cilix, filix, fornix, nix, pix, salix, strix. and a few others, chiefly proper names.

³ But short in intercus, Ligus, pecus.

Increments of Conjugation.

586. In the Increments of Conjugation (583), a, e, and o are long; i and u short:

amāmus, amēmus, amātōte; regimus, sumus.

NOTE 1.—In ascertaining the increments of the irregular verbs, $fer\tilde{o}$, $vol\tilde{o}$, and their compounds, the full form of the second person, feris, volis, etc., must be used. Thus in $fer\tilde{e}bam$ and $vol\tilde{e}bam$, the increments are $r\tilde{e}$ and $l\tilde{e}$.

Note 2.—In ascertaining the increments of reduplicated forms (255, I.), the reduplication is not counted. Thus dedimus has but one increment, di.

- I. A, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short in the first increment of $d\bar{o}$: dare, dabam, circumdabam.
 - II. **E**, usually Long in the increments of conjugation, is short before r—
- 1. In the tenses in ram, rim, rō: amāveram, amāverim, amāverō; reverat, reverat.
- 2. In the first increment of the Present and Imperfect of Conjugation III.: regere, regeris, regerem, regerer.
 - 3. In the Future ending beris, bere: amāberis or -ere, monēberis.
- 4. Rarely in the Perfect ending erunt: steterunt for steterunt; see 236, note; also Systole, 608, VI.
- III. I, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is LONG, except before a vowel—
- 1. In the first increment of Conjugation IV., except imus of the Perfect: audire, audivi, auditum; sentire, sentimus; sensimus (Perfect).
- 2. In Conjugation III., in the first increment of Perfects and Supines in ivi and itum (278), and of the parts derived from them (except imus of the Perfect: trīvimus): cupīvī, cupīverat, cupītus; petīvī, petīvī, petītus; capēssīvī, capēssītūrus. Gāvīsus from gaudeō follows the same analogy.
- 3. In the endings imus and itis of the Present Subjunctive: sīmus, sītis; velīmus, velītis (240, 3).
- 4. In nölīte, nölītō, nölītōte, and in the different persons of *ībam*, *ībō*, from eō (295).
- 5. Sometimes in the endings rīmus and rītis of the Future Perfect and Perfect Subjunctive: amāverīmus, amāverītis.
- IV. U, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is Long in the Supine and the parts formed from it: volūtum, volūtūrus, amātūrus.

IV. QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS.

- 587. The most important derivative endings may be classified according to quantity as follows:
 - I. Derivative endings with a Long Penult:
 - 1. ābrum, ācrum, ātrum:

flābrum, simulācrum, arātrum.

2. ēdő, īdő, ūdő; āgő, īgő, ūgő:

dulcēdŏ, cupīdŏ, solitūdŏ; vorāgŏ, orīgŏ, aerūgŏ.

3. āis, ēis, ōis, ōtis, īnē, ōnē—in patronymics: 1

Ptolemāis, Chrysēis, Mīnois, Īcariotis, Nerīnē, Acrisione.

4. ēla, īle; ālis, ēlis, ūlis:

querēla, ovīle; mortālis, fidēlis, curūlis.

5. anus, enus, onus, unus; ana, ena, ona, una:

urbānus, egēnus, patronus, tribūnus; membrāna, habēna, annona, lacūna.

6. āris, ārus; ōrus, ōsus; āvus, īvus:

salūtāris, avārus; canorus, animosus; octāvus, aestīvus.

7. ātus, ētus, ītus, ōtus, ūtus; ātim, ītim, ūtim; ētum, ēta:2

ālātus, facētus, turrītus, aegrōtus, cornūtus; singulātim, virītim, tribūtīm; quercētum, monēta.

8. ēnī. īnī. ōnī—in distributives:

septēnī, quīnī, octonī.

- IL Derivative endings with a Short Penult-
- 1. adēs, iadēs, idēs—in patronymics:3

Aenēadēs, Lāertiadēs, Tantalidēs,

2. iacus, icus, idus:4

Corinthiacus, modicus, cupidus.

3. olus, ola, olum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum—in diminutives:

filiolus, filiola, atriolum; hortulus, virgula, oppidulum; flösculus, particula, mūnusculum.

4. etās, itās—in nouns; iter, itus—in adverbs:

pietās, vēritās; fortiter, dīvīnitus.

5. ātilis, ilis, bilis—in verbals; inus—in adjectives denoting material or time: 5

versātilis, docilis, amābilis; adamantinus, cedrinus, crāstinus, diūtinus.

NOTE 1.—His in adjectives from nouns usually has the penult long: cīvīlis, hostilis, puerilis, virīlis.

NOTE 2.—Inus denoting characteristic (330) usually has the penult long: caninus, equinus, marinus.

- ¹ Except Danais, Phōcais, Thēbais, Nērēis.
- ² Except (1) anhēlitus, fortuitus, grātuitus, hālitus, hospitus, spīritus; (2) adfatim, statim, and adverbs in itus, as divinitus; and (3) participles provided for by 586.
- S Except (1) those in rides from nouns in eus and es: as, Pelides (Peleus), Neoclides (Neocles); and (2) Amphiarāides, Amyclides, Belides, Coronides, Lycurgides.
 - 4 Except amīcus, anticus, aprīcus, mendīcus, postīcus, pudīcus.
 - 5 Except mātūtīnus, repentīnus, vespertīnus,

III. Derivative endings with a Long Antepenult:

āceus, ūceus, āneus, ārius, ārium, ōrius:
 rosāceus, pannūceus, subitāneus, cibārius, columbārium, cēnsōrius,

2. ābundus, ācundus; ābilis, ātilis, āticus: mīrābundus, īrācundus; amābilis, versātilis, aquāticus,

3. **āgint**ā, **īgint**ī, **ēsimus**—in numerals: nōnāgintā, vīgintī, centēsimus.

4. imōnia, imōnium; tōrius, sōrius; tōria, tōrium: querimōnia, alimōnium; amātōrius, cēnsōrius; vīctōria, audītōrium.

IV. Derivative endings with a SHORT ANTEPENULT:

 ibilis, itūdŏ, olentus, ulentus: crēdibilis, sōlitūdŏ, vīnolentus, opulentus.

2. uriō—in desideratives: ēsuriō, ēmpturiō, parturiō.

V. QUANTITY OF STEM-SYLLABLES.

588. All simple verbs in $i\bar{o}$ of the Third Conjugation (217) have the stem-syllable 1 short:

capiō, cupiō, faciō, fodiō, fugiò.

589. Most verbs which form the Perfect in uī have the stemsyllable short:

domō, secō, habeō, moneō, alō, colō.

Note.—Pōnī, dēbeō, floreō, pāreō, and several inceptive verbs, are exceptions.

590. Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines have the first syllable long, unless short by position:

juvo, jūvī, jūtum; foveo, fovī, fotum.

1. Eight Perfects and ten Supines have the first syllable short:

bibī, dedī, fidī, liquī,² scidī, stetī, stitī, tulī; citum, datum, itum, litum, quitum, raturu, rutum, satum, situm, statum.²

591. Trisyllabic Reduplicated Perfects have the first two syllables short:

cado, cecidi; cano, cecini; disco, didici.

Note 1.—Caedō has cecīdī in distinction from cecidī from cadō.

Note 2.—The second syllable may be made long by position: cucurri, momordi.

592. In general, inflected forms retain the quantity of stem-syllables unchanged: ³

¹ That is, the syllable preceding the characteristic.

² Liqui from liqueo; linquo has liqui. Statum from sisto; sto has stătum.

⁸ But see Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines, 590.

avis, avem; nūbės, nūbium; levis, levior, levissimus; moneō, monēbam, monuī.

Note 1.—Position may, however, affect the quantity: ager, agrī; possum, potuī; solvō, solūtum; volvō, volūtum.

Note 2.—Gigno gives genui, genitum, and pono, posui, positum.

593. Derivatives generally retain the quantity of the stem-syllables of their primitives:

bonus, bonitas; timeo, timor; animus, animosus; cīvis, cīvicus; cūra, cŭro.

1. Words formed from the same root sometimes show a variation in the quantity of stem-syllables:

cō,	personö,	persona,
icō,	regō,	rēx, rēgis, rēgula,
dō,	secus,	sētius,
imānus,	sedeō,	sēdēs, sēdulus,
terna,	serō,	sēmen,
x, lēgis,	sopor,	sopio,
ācerō,	suspicor,	suspīcio,
ōbilis,	tegō,	tēgula,
tum,	vadum,	vādō,
lī, '	vocō,	vox, vocis.
	leő, lo, lo, lománus, lerna, k, lēgis, aceró, jbilis, tum,	leő, regő, lő, secus, mánus, sedeő, serő, serő, serő, sopor, aceró, suspicor, 5bilis, tegő, tum, vadum,

Note 1.—This change of quantity in some instances is the result of contraction, as movibilis, moibilis, mobilis, and in others it serves to distinguish words of the same orthography, as the verbs legis, leges, regis, reges, sedes, from the nouns legis, leges, regis, reges, sedes, from the nouns legis, leges, regis, reges, sedes, or the verbs ducis, duces, fides.

Note 2.—A few derivatives shorten the long vowel of the primitive: ācer, acerbus; āceō, lucerna; mōlēs, molestus.

- 594. Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements: ante-fero, de-fero, de-duco, in-aequalis, pro-duco.
- 1. The change of a vowel or diphthong does not affect the quantity: dē-ligō (legō), oc-cidō (cadō), oc-cidō (caedō).
- 2. The Inseparable Prepositions $d\tilde{\imath}$, $s\tilde{e}$, and $v\tilde{e}$ are long, re short; ne sometimes long and sometimes short:

dīdūcō, sēdūcō, vēcors, redūcō; nēdum, nefās:

Note 1 .- Di is short in dirimo and disertus.

Note 2.—Në is long in nëdum, nëmö, nëquam, nëquaquam, nëquaquam, nëquitia, and nëve. In other words it is short.

Note 3.—Re is sometimes lengthened in a few words: $r\tilde{\epsilon}ligi\delta$, $r\tilde{\epsilon}liquiae$, $r\tilde{\epsilon}perit$. $\tilde{\epsilon}pulit$, $r\tilde{\epsilon}tulit$, etc.

- 3. In a few words the quantity of the second element is changed. Thus Jūrō gives -jerō; nōtus, -nitus; nūbō, -nuba: dē-jerō, cōg-nitus, prō-nuba.
- Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeacūtus, praeūstus.
 - 5. Pro is short in the following words:

¹ Here the first syllable is short in ager, but common in agrī (578); long in pos sum, solvō, volvō (576, II.), but short in potuī, solūtum, and volūtum.

procella, procul, profānus, profūrī, profectō, profestus, proficīscor, profiteor, profugiō, profugus, profundus, pronepōs, proneptis, protervus, and in most Greek words, as prophēta; generally also in profundo, propāgō, propāgō, propānō, rarely in procūrō, propellō.

6. At the end of a verbal stem compounded with faciō or fiō, e is generally short:

calefacio, calefio, labefacio, patefacio.

- 7. I is usually long in the first part of the compounds of $di\bar{e}s$: merīdiēs, prīdiē, postrīdiē, cotīdiē, trīduum.
- 8. O is long in $contr\bar{o}$ -, $intr\bar{o}$ -, $retr\bar{o}$ -, and $quand\bar{o}$ in composition: $contr\bar{o}versia$, $intr\bar{o}d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, $retr\bar{o}vert\bar{o}$, $quand\bar{o}que$; but $quand\bar{o}quidem$.
- 9. The quantity of the final i in $ib\tilde{i},\,ub\tilde{i},$ and $ut\tilde{i}$ is often changed in composition:

ibīdem, ibīque; ubīque, ubīnam, ubivīs, ubīcunque, necubi, sīcubi; utinam, utique, sīcuti.

10. Hodie, quasi, quoque, and siquidem have the first syllable short.

595. The Quantity of Stem-Syllables in cases not provided for by any rules now given will be best learned from the Dictionary. By far the larger number of such syllables will be found to be short. For convenience of reference, a list of the most important primitives with long stem-syllables is added:

¹ Including a few derivatives and compounds.

mûgeō	ōtium	püber	sēdō	A=4
mūniō				tōtus
	pāgus	pūniō	serēnus	trūdō
mūnus	pālor	pūrus	sērus	über
mūrus	pānis	quālis	sīdō	ūdus
mūsa	pāreō	rādīx	sincērus	ŭmeō
mūtö	penātēs	rādō	sölor	ūnus
mūtus	perītus	rāmus	sõlus	ūrõ
nāris	pīlum	rārus	sōpiō	ūtor
nāvis	pīnus	· rēmus	spica	ūva
nīdus	plānus	\mathbf{r} īde $\tilde{\mathbf{o}}$	spīna	ūvidus
nītor (ī)	plenus	rīpa	spīrō	vādō
nõdus	plūma	rītus	spūma	vānus
nōnus	poēta	rīvus	squāleŏ	vātēs
nūbēs	pōmum	röbur	stîpō	vēlāx
nūbō	pone	rōdō	strāgēs	vēlum
nüdus	pono	rūga	strēnuus	vēna
nūtö	pōtō	rūmor	strīdeō	venenum
õlim	prātum	rūpēs	sūdō	vēnor
ōmen	prāvus	sānus	tābēs	vērus
opācus	prīmus	scālae	tālis	vīlis
opīmus	prīvus	scrībō	tēlum	vīnum
ōra	promo .	scütum	tēmŏ	vīvö
ōrō	prora	sēdēs	tībia	*****

CHAPTER II.

VERSIFICATION.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT.

- 596. Latin Versification is based upon QUANTITY. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.¹
- 1. In quantity or time the unit of measure is the short syllable, indicated either by a curve or by an eighth note in music, . A long syllable

¹ Modern versification is based upon Accent. An English verse is a regular combination of accented and unaccented syllables, but a Latin verse is a similar combination of long and short syllables. The rhythmic accent or ictus (599) in Latin depends entirely upon quantity. Compare the following lines:

Tell' me	not', in but' an	mourn'-ful	num'-bers,
Life' is		emp'-ty	dream'.
Trū'-di-	tur' di-	ēs' di-	ë'.
At' fi-	dēs' et	in'-ge-	nî'.

Observe that in the English lines the accent or ictus falls upon the same syllables as in prose, while in the Latin it falls uniformly upon long syllables. On Latin Versification, see Ramsay's 'Latin Prosody'; Schmidt's 'Rhythmik und Metrik,' translated by Professor White; Christ's 'Metrik.'

has in general twice the value of a short syllable, and is indicated either by the sign -, or by a quarter note in music,]. This unit of measure is also called a time or mora.

Note 1.—A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value (1) of three short syllables, indicated by the sign L, or 1; or (2) of four short syllables, indicated by L, or ...

Note 2.—A long syllable is sometimes shortened so as to have the value of a short syllable, indicated by the sign >, or . A syllable thus used is said to have irrational time.

597. The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are— I. FEET OF FOUR TIMES OR FOUR MORAE.

```
Dactyl,
             one long and two short.
                                                              carmina.
Spondee.
             two long syllables.
                                                              lēgēs.
             II. FEET OF THREE TIMES, OR THREE MORAE.
Trochee,2
             one long and one short.
                                                              lēgis.
             one short and one long,
Iambus.
                                                              parens.
Tribrach,
             three short syllables,
                                                              dominus.
Note 1.—To these may be added the following:
```

```
Pyrrhic,
         \cup
                     pater.
                                      Ditrochee.
                                                   ----
                                                               cīvitātis.
Anapaest, ---
                     bonitās.
                                      Dispondee,
                                                   ---
                                                               praeceptores.
Bacchīus,
          V - -
                     dolores.
                                      Greater Ionic,
                                                   sententia.
Cretic.
          _ _ _
                     mīlitēs.
                                      Lesser Ionic.
                                                   · · · - -
                                                               adolēscēns.
Dijambus. - - - amoenitās.
                                      Choriambus,
                                                               impatiens.3
```

Note 2.- A Dipody is a group of two feet; a Tripody, of three; a Tetrapody, of four, etc. A Trihemimeris is a group of three half feet, i. e., a foot and a half; a Penthemimeris, of two and a half; a Hephthemimeris, of three and a half, etc.

598. METRICAL EQUIVALENTS.—A long syllable may be resolved into two short syllables, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short syllables may be contracted into a long syllable. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original feet.

Note.—Thus the Dactyl becomes a Spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the Spondee becomes a Dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an Anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly, the Dactyl, the Spondee, and the Anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the Iambus, the Trochee, and the Tribrach are metrical equivalents.

¹ See foot-note 1, p. 349.

² Sometimes called Choree.

⁵ The feet here mentioned as having four syllables are only compounds of dissyllable feet. Thus the Diiambus is a double Iambus; the Ditrochee, a double Trochee; the Perpondee, a double Spondee; the Greater Ionic, a Spondee and a Pyrrhic; the Lesser Ionic, a Pyrrhic and a Spondee; the Choriambus, a Trochee (Choree) and an Iambus.

- 1. In certain kinds of verse admitting *irrational* time (596, 1, note 2), Spondees, Dactyls, and Anapaests are shortened to the time of a Trochee or of an Iambus, and thus become metrical equivalents of each of these feet.
- 1) A Spondee used for a Trochee is called an IRRATIONAL TROCHEE, and is marked ->.
- A Spondee used for an Iambus is called an Irrational Immers, and is marked > —.
- 3) A Dactyl used for a Trochee is called a Cyclic Dactyl, and is marked
- 4) An Anapaest used for an Iambus is called a Cyclic Anapaest, and is marked — —.
- 599. ICTUS OR RHYTHMIC ACCENT.—As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called Rhythmic Accent or Ictus.
- 1. Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used as equivalents for other feet.

Note.—Thus the Dactyl and the Trochee have the ictus on the first syllable; the Anapaest and the Iambus on the last.

2. Equivalents take the ictus of the feet for which they are used.

NOTE 1.—Thus the Spondee, when used for the Dactyl, takes the ictus of the Dactyl —i. e., on the first syllable; but when used for the Anapaest, it takes the ictus of the Anapaest—i. e., on the last syllable.

Note 2.—Feet consisting entirely of long or entirely of short syllables are generally used as equivalents, and are accented accordingly.

NOTE 3.—When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of an accented ang syllable of the original foot, the ictus properly belongs to both of these syllables, but is marked upon the first. Thus a Tribrach used for an Iambus is marked $\smile \smile \smile$.

- 600. Arsis and Thesis.—The accented part of each foot is called the Arsis (raising), and the unaccented part, the Thesis (lowering).¹
- 601. Verses.—A verse is a line of poetry (596). It has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse.

NOTE 1.—Thus every dactylic verse has the ictus on the first syllable of each foot because the Dactyl has the ictus on that syllable.

¹ Greek writers on versification originally used the terms ιρσιs and θέσιs of raising and putting down the foot in marching or in beating time. Thus the Thesis was the accented part of the foot, and the Arsis the unaccented part. The Romans, however, applied the terms to raising and lowering the voice in reading. Thus Arsis came to mean the accented part of the foot, and Thesis the unaccented part. The terms have now been so long and so generally used in this sense that it is not deemed advisable to attempt to restore them to their original signification.

Note 2.—Two verses sometimes unite and form a compound verse; see 628, X.

Note 8.—Metre means measure, and is variously used, sometimes designating the neasure or quantity of syllables, and sometimes the foot or measure 1 of a verse.

- 602. Caesura or Caesural Pause.—Most Latin verses are divided metrically into two nearly equal parts, each of which forms a rhythmic series. The pause, however slight, which naturally separates these parts is called—
- 1. A Caesura, or a Caesural Pause, when it occurs within a foot; see 611.
- 2. A Diaeresis, when it occurs at the end of a foot; see 611, 2 and 3.

Note.—Some verses consist of three parts thus separated by caesura or diacresis, while some consist of a single rhythmic series.³

- 603. The full metrical name of a verse consists of three parts. The first designates the characteristic foot, the second gives the number of feet or measures, and the third shows whether the verse is complete or incomplete. Thus—
- 1. A Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic is a dactylic verse of six feet (Hexameter), all of which are complete (Acatalectic).
- 2. A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic is a trochaic verse of two measures (Dimeter), the last of which is incomplete (Catalectic).

Note 1.—A verse with a Dactyl as its characteristic foot is called *Dactylic*; with a Trochee, *Trochaic*; with an Iambus, *Iambic*, etc.

Note 2.—A verse consisting of one measure is called *Monometer*; of two, *Dimeter*; of three, *Trimeter*; of four, *Tetrameter*; of five, *Pentameter*; of six, *Hewameter*.

NOTE 3.—A verse which closes with a complete measure is called Acatalectic; 4 with an incomplete measure, Catalectic; 4 with an excess of syllables, Hypermetrical.4

Note 4.—The term Acatalectic is often omitted, as a verse may be assumed to be complete unless the opposite is stated.

Note 5.-A Catalectic verse is said to be catalectic in syllabam, in disyllabum, or in trisyllabum, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.

- Note 6.—Verses are sometimes briefly designated by the number of feet or measures which they contain. Thus Hexameter (six measures) sometimes designates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.
- 604. Verses are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets.

Note 1.—Thus Alcaic is derived from Alcaeus; Archilochian, from Archilochus; Sapphic, from Sapphō; Glyconic, from Glycōn, etc.

- ¹ In dactylic verses a measure is a single foot, but in trochaic and iambic verses it is a dipody or a pair of feet.
- ² Caesūra (from $caed\bar{o}$, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the foot and the verse into parts.
- 3 A verse consisting of a single series is called Monocolon; of two, Dicolon; of three, Tricolon.
 - 4 From the Greek ἀκατάληκτος, καταληκτικός, and ὑπέρμετρος.

- NOTE 2.—Verses sometimes receive a name from the kind of subjects to which they were applied: as *Heroic*, applied to heroic subjects; *Paroemiac*, to proverbs, etc.
- 605. The Final Syllable of a verse may generally be either long or short at the pleasure of the poet.
- 606. A Stanza is a combination of two or more verses of different metres into one metrical whole; see 631.

Note.—A stanza of two lines or verses is called a Distich; of three, a Tristich; of four, a Tetrastich.

607. RHYTHMICAL READING.—In reading Latin verse care must be taken to preserve the words unbroken, to show the quantity of the syllables, and to mark the poetical ictus.

Note.—Scanning consists in separating a poem or verse into the feet of which it is composed. 1

- 608. Figures of Prosody.—The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody.
- I. ELISION.—A final vowel, a final diphthong, or a final m with the preceding vowel, is generally elided 2 before a word beginning with a vowel or with h:

Mönstrum horrendum īnförme ingens, for Mönstrum horrendum īnförme ingens. Verg.

NOTE 1 .- For Exceptions, see Hiatus, II., below.

Note 2.—Final e in the interrogative ne is sometimes dropped before a consonant:

Pyrrhīn' connūbia servās? for Pyrrhīne connūbia servās? Verg.

Note 3.—In the early poets final s is often dropped before consonants:

Ex omnibu' rēbus, for ex omnibus rēbus. Lucr.

Note 4.—The elision of a final m with the preceding vowel is sometimes called $Ecthlipsis.^3$

NOTE 5.—The elision of a final vowel or diphthong, or of a final m with the preceding vowel, is sometimes called Synaloepha, or, if at the end of a line, Synapheia.

- II. Hiatus.—A final yowel or diphthong is sometimes retained before a word beginning with a vowel. Thus—
- 1. The interjections \tilde{o} , heu, and pr \tilde{o} are not elided; see Verg., Aen., X., 18; Geor., II., 486.
- 2. Long vowels and diphthongs are sometimes retained, especially in the arsis of a foot; see Verg., Ec., III., 6; VII., 52.

¹ In school this is sometimes done in a purely mechanical way, sacrificing words to feet; but even this mechanical process is often useful to the beginner, as it makes him familiar with the poetical ictus.

² That is, partially suppressed. In reading, it should be lightly and indistinctly sounded, and blended with the following syllable, as in English poetry:

[&]quot;The eternal years of God are hers."

F From the Greek ἔκθλιψις, συναλοιφή, and συνάφεια.

Note 1.—This is most common in proper names.

NOTE 2.—Vergil employs this form of hiatus more freely than the other Latin poets, and yet the entire Aeneid furnishes only a short list of examples.

Note 3.—In the thesis a final long vowel or diphthong is sometimes shortened before a short vowel instead of being elided; see Verg., Aen., III., 211; VI., 507.

Note 4.—Hiatus with a short final vowel is rare, but occurs even in Vergil; see Aen, I., 405; Ec., II., 53.

III. SYNAERESIS.—Two syllables are sometimes contracted into one: aurea, deinde, deinceps, tidem, tisdem, eaedem, prohibeat (pronounced probleat).

Note 1.—In the different parts of dēsum, ee is generally pronounced as one syllable: dēesse, dēest, dēerat, dēerit, etc.; so ei in the verb anteeò: antēire, antēirem, antēis, antēir

Note 2.—I and u before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the sound of y and w. Thus abiete and ariete become abyete and aryete; genua and tenuès become genua and tenuès.

Note 3.—In Plautus and Terence, Sunaeresis is used with great freedom.

Note 4.—The contraction of two syllables into one is sometimes called Sunizesis.

IV. Diaeresis.—In poetry, two syllables usually contracted into one are sometimes retained distinct:

aurā
Iforaurae, Orpheüs for Orphe
ūs, soluendus forsolvendus, silva

Note.—Diagresis properly means the resolution of one syllable into two, but the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually make two syllables out of one. The examples generally explained by diagresis are only ancient forms, used for effect or convenience.

V. DIASTOLE.—A syllable usually short is sometimes long, especially in the arsis of a foot:

Prīamidēs for Priamidēs.

Note 1.—This poetic license occurs chiefly in proper names and in final syllables.

Note 2.—Vergil uses this license quite freely. He lengthens que in sixteen instances.

VI. Systole.—A syllable usually long is sometimes short:

tulerunt for tulërunt, steterunt for stetërunt (236, note), vidë'n for vidësne.

Note.—This poetic license occurs most frequently in final vowels and diphthongs.

VII. SYNCOPE.—An entire foot is sometimes occupied by a single long syllable; see 614.

SECTION II.

VARIETIES OF VERSE.

I. DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

609. All Dactylic Verses consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.

610. The Dactylic Hexameter consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (605). The scale is,

Quadrupe- | dante pu- | trem soni- | tū quatit | ungula | campum. Verg. Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō Trō- | jae quī | prīmus ab | ōrīs. Verg. Īnfan- | dum rē- | gīna ju- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg. Illī 5 in- | ter sē- | sē māg- | nā vī | bracchia | tollunt. Verg. 6

- 1. The scale of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees. Thus a verse may contain—
 - 1) Five Dactyls and one Spondee, as in the first example above.
 - 2) Four Dactyls and two Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
 - 3) Three Dactyls and three Spondees, admitting six different arrangements.
 - 4) Two Dactyls and four Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
 - 5) One Dactyl and five Spondees, as in the fourth example.
- 2. Effect of Dactyls.—Dactyls produce a rapid movement, and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement, and are adapted to grave subjects. But generally the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.
 - 3. Spondaic Line.—The Hexameter sometimes takes a Spondee in the

The notation of means that, instead of the original measure of the equivalent of may be used.

¹ This is at once the most important and the most ancient of all the Greek and Roman metres. In Greece it attained its perfection in the poems of Homer. It was introduced into Italy in a somewhat imperfect form by the poet Ennius about the middle of the second century before Christ; but it was improved by Lucretius, Catullus, and others, until it attained great excellence in the works of the Augustan poets. The most beautiful and finished Latin Hexameters are found in the works of Ovid and Vergil.

² The Dactylic Hexameter in Latin is here treated as *Acatalectic*, as the Latin poets seem to have regarded the last foot as a genuine Spondee, thus making the measure complete. See Christ, 'Metrik der Griechen und Römer,' pp. 110, 164.

³ In this scale the sign' marks the ictus (599), and —

denotes that the original Dactyl, marked —

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⁴ Expressed in musical characters, this scale is as follows:

⁵ The final ī of illī is elided; see 608, I.

[•] With these lines of Vergil compare the following Hexameters from the Evangeline of Longfellow:

[&]quot;This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it

Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntsman?"

fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a Dactyl as its fourth foot:

Căra de- | um sobo- | les mag- | num Jovis | incre- | mentum. Verg.

NOTE.—In Vergil, spondaic lines are used much more sparingly than in the earlier poets, and generally end in words of three or four syllables, as in incrēmentum above.

611. CAESURA, OR CAESURAL PAUSE.—The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is after the arsis, or in the thesis, of the third foot: ³

Armā- | tī ten- | dunt; || it | clāmor et | āgmine | factō. Verg.
Īnfan- | dum, rē- | gīna, || ju- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem, Verg.

Note.—In the first line, the caesural pause, marked \parallel , is after tendunt, after the arsis of the third foot; and in the second line after $r\bar{e}g\bar{n}na$, in the thesis $(na\ ju)$ of the third foot. The former is called the Masculine Caesura, the latter the Feminine Caesura.

1. The CAESURAL PAUSE is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second:

Crēdide- | rim; | vēr | illud e- | rat, | vēr | māgnus a- | gēbat. Verg.

2. Bucolic Diaeresis.—A pause called the *Bucolic Diaeresis*, because originally used in the pastoral poetry of the Greeks, sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot:

Ingen- | tem cae- | lo soni- | tum dedit : || inde se- | cutus. Vera.

Note.—The Bucolic Diagresis was avoided by the best Latin poets, even in treating pastoral subjects. Vergil, even in his Bucolics, uses it very sparingly.

3. A Diaeresis at the end of the third foot without any proper caesural pause is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

Pulveru- | lentus e- | quis furit; | omnes | arma re- | quirunt. Verg.

- ! A single poem of Catullus, about half as long as a book of the Aeneid, contains more spondaic lines than all the works of Vergil.
- ² But Vergil has two spondaic lines ending et $m\bar{a}gn\bar{i}s$ $d\bar{i}s$; see Aen., III., 12, and VIII., 679.
- ³ That is, the first rhythmic series ends at this point. This pause is always at the end of a word, and may be so very slight as in most cases not to interfere with the sense, even if no mark of punctuation is required; but the best verses are so constructed that the caesural pause coincides with a pause in the sense; see Christ, 'Metrik,' p. 184. According to some writers, the Dactylic Haxameter had its origin in the union of two earlier dactylic verses, and the caesural pause now marks the point of union; see Christ, p. 173.
- 4 The Masculine Caesura is also called the Strong, or the Syllabic, Caesura, the Feminine the Weak, or the Trochaic, Caesura. Caesuras are often named from the place which they occupy in the line. Thus a caesura after the arsis of the second foot is called Trihemimeral; after the arsis of the third, Penthemimeral; after the arsis of the fourth, Hephthemimeral.
- ⁵ Also called the Bucolic Caesura, as the term caesura is often made to include diagresis.

4. The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these is marked by any perceptible pause:

Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō, || Trō- | jae quī | prīmus ab | ōrīs. Verg.

Note.—Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one of these, that after cano, in the third foot, has the caesural pause.

5. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Romae | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armīs. Enn.

Note 1.—The *Penthemimeral* ² caesura has great power to impart melody to the verse, but the best effect is produced when it is aided by other caesuras, as above.

Note 2.- A happy effect is often produced-

1) By combining the feminine caesura in the third foot with the hephthemimeral and the trihemimeral:

Donec e- | ris fē- | līx, || mul- | tos nume- | rābis a- | mīcos. Verg.

2) By combining the hephthemimeral with the trihemimeral:

Inde to- | ro pater | Aene- | as sic | orsus ab | alto. Verg.

NOTE 3.—The union of the *feminine* caesura with the *trihemimeral*, common in **Greek**, is somewhat rare in Latin, but it sometimes produces an harmonious verse:

Praecipi- | tat, sua- | dentque ca- | dentia | sīdera | somnōs. Verg.

NOTE 4.—In the last two feet of the verse there should in general be no caesura whatever, unless it falls in the thesis of the fifth foot; but when that foot contains two entire words, a caesura is admissible after the arsis.

- 612. The ictus often falls upon unaccented syllables. Thus-
- 1. In the first, second, and fourth feet of the verse it falls sometimes upon *accented* and sometimes upon *unaccented* syllables; see examples under 610.
- 2. In the third foot it generally falls upon an unaccented syllable; see examples under 610.
- 3. In the fifth and sixth feet it generally falls upon accented syllables; see examples under 610.
- 613. The Last Word of the Hexameter is generally either a dissyllable or a trisyllable; see examples under 610 and 611.3
- ¹ The caesura with the pause is variously called the chief caesura, the caesura of the verse, the caesura of the rhythm, etc. In distinction from this any other caesura may be called a caesura, a caesura of the foot, or a minor caesura.
 - ² See p. 356, foot-note 4.
- The learner should be informed that the niceties of structure which belong to finished Latin hexameters must be sought only in the poems of Vergil and Ovid. The happiest disposition of caesuras, the best adjustment of the poetical ictus to the prose accent, and the most approved structure in the closing measures of the verse, can not be expected in the rude numbers of Ennius, in the scientific discussions of Lucretius, or even in the familiar Satires of Horace. Those interested in the peculiarities of Latin hexameters in different writers will find a discussion of the subject in Lucian Müller's work, 'De rêmetrica poétārum Latīnōrum praeter Plautum et Terentium librī septem.'

Note 1 .- Spondaic lines are exceptions; see 610, 3, note.

Note 2.—Two monosyllables at the end of a line are not particularly objectionable and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Praecipi- | tant cu- | rae, || tur- | bătaque | funere | mēns est. Verg.

Note 3.—Est, even when not preceded by another monosyllable, may stand at the end of a line.

Note 4.—A single monosyllable, except est, is not often used at the end of the line, except for the purpose of emphasis or humor;

Perturi- | unt mon- | tes, || nas- | cetur | ridicu- | lus mus. Hor.

Note 5.—In Vergil, twenty-one lines, apparently hypermetrical (603, note 3), are supposed to elide a final vowel or a final em or um before the initial vowel of the next line; see Δ en., I., 382; Geor., I., 295. See also 608, I., note 5.

II. OTHER DACTYLIC VERSES.

614. Dactylic Pentameter. —The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts separated by a diaeresis. Each part consists of two Dactyls and a long syllable. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

615. ELEGIAC DISTICH.—The Elegiac Distich consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sēmise | pulta vi- | rūm || cur- | vīs feri- | untur a- | rātrīs Ossa, ru- | īnō- | sās || occulit | herba do- | mūs. *Ovid*.

NOTE 1.—In reading the Elegiac Distich, the Pentameter, including pauses, should of course occupy the same time as the Hexameter.

NOTE 2.—Elegaic composition should be characterized by grace and elegance. Both members of the distich should be constructed in accordance with the most rigid rules of metre. The sense should be complete at the end of the couplet. Ovid furnishes us the best specimens of this style of composition.

616. The Dactylic Tetrameter is identical with the last four feet of the Hexameter:

Ībimus | ō soci- | ī, comi- | tēsque. Hor.

In musical characters the scale of this verse is as follows:

¹ The name *Pentameter* is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet consisting of two Dactyls, or Spondees, a Spondee and two Anapaests.

² Thus in reading, a pause may be introduced after the long syllable in the third foot, or that syllable may be prolonged to fill out the measure. A pause or rest equal to a short syllable is marked Λ ; a pause equal to a long syllable, Λ .

NOTE.—In compound verses, as in the Greater Archilochian, the tetrameter in composition with other metres has a Dactyl in the fourth place; see 628, X.

617. The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic is identical with the second half of the Dactylic Pentameter:

Arbori- | busque co- | mae. Hor.

Norn.—The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic is also known as the Lesser Architochian.

III. TROCHAIC VERSE.

618. The TROCHAIC DIPODY, the measure in Trochaic verse, consists of two Trochees, the second of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 1))—i. e., it has the *form* of a Spondee with the *time* of a Trochee:

NOTE 2.—In the Trochaic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier ictus than the second.

NOTE 3.—A syllable is sometimes prefixed to a Trochaic verse. A syllable thus used is called *Anacrusis* (upward beat), and is separated from the following measure by the mark:

619. The Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic consists of two Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits no equivalents, and has the following scale:

$$\angle \cup - \cup | \angle \cup \cong$$
Aula dīvi- | tem manet. *Hor*.

NOTE .- A Trochaic Tripody occurs in the Greater Archilochian; see 628, X.

1. The Alcaic Enneasyllabic verse which forms the third line in the Alcaic stanza is a Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis:

Pu- : er quis ex au- | la capillis. Hor.

620. The Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic consists of four Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. There is a *diaeresis* (602, 2) at the end of the fourth foot, and the incomplete dipody admits no equivalents:

Prīmus ad ci- | bum vocātur, || prīmō pulmen- | tum datur. Plaut.

¹ See 601, note 3, with foot-note.

² Thus in the second foot of a Trochaic Dipody the poet may use a Trochee, a Tribrach, a Spondee, or an Anapaest; but the Spondee and the Anapaest are pronounced in the same time as the Trochee or the Tribrach—i. e., they have irrational time.

³ Only the leading ictus of each dipody is here marked.

Note 1.—This is simply the union of two Trochaic Dimeters, the first acatalectic and the second catalectic, separated by diacresis.

NOTE 2.—In Latin this verse is used chiefly in comedy, and accordingly admits great licence in the use of feet. The Irrational Trochee (598, 1, 1)) and its equivalents may occur in any foot except in the last dipody.

Note 3.—The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic also occurs in the earlier poets:

Ipse summîs | saxīs fīxus || asperīs ē- | viscerātus. Enn.

IV. IAMBIC VERSE.

621. The IAMBIC DIPODY, the measure of Iambic verse, consists of two Iambi, the first of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 2))—i. e., it has the *form* of a Spondee with the *time* of an Iambus:

NOTE 1.—The Tribrach for the Iambus, and the Dactyl 2 or Anapaest 2 for the Irrational Iambus, are rare, except in comedy.

Note 2.—In the Ionic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier ictus than the second.

622. The IAMBIC TRIMETER, also called *Senarius*, consists of three Iambic Dipodies. The Caesura is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth:

Quid obserā- | tīs || auribus | fundis precēs? Hor. Neptūnus al- | tō || tundit hī- | bernus salō. Hor. Hās inter epu- | lās || ut juvat | pāstās ovēs. Hor.

- 1. In Proper Names, a Cyclic Anapaest is admissible in any foot except the last, but must be in a single word.
- 2. In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Iambus and the Spon dee; their equivalents, the Tribrach, the Dactyl, and the Anapaest, are used very sparingly. The Tribrach never occurs in the fifth foot and only once in the first. The Anapaest occurs only twice in all.
 - 3. In COMEDY great liberty is taken, and the Spondee and its equivalents are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

We' can make our | lives' sublime, And', departing, | leave' behind us Foot'prints on the | sands' of time."

² The Dactyl thus used has the time of an Iambus and is marked > ⋄ ⋄; the Anspaest is cyclic (598, 1, 4), marked ⋄ ⋄ ≁.

³ This same scale, divided thus, $\geq | \angle \cup - \rangle | \angle \cup - \rangle | \angle \cup - \wedge$, represents Trochaic Trimeter Catalectic with Anacrusis. Thus all Iambic verses may be treated as Trochaic verses with Anacrusis.

4 Compare the English Alexandrine, the last line of the Spenserian stanza:
When Phoe'bus lifts | his head' out of | the win'ter's wave.

¹ Compare the corresponding English measure, in which the two parts appear as separate lines:

"Lives' of great men | all' remind us

4. The Choliambus is a variety of *Iambic Trimeter* with a Trochee in the sixth foot; 1

Miser Catul- | le désinas | ineptire. Catul.

623. The IAMBIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC occurs in Horace with the following scale:

Vocātus at- | que non vocā- | tus audit. Hor.

Note,—The Dactyl and the Anapaest are not admissible; the Tribrach occurs only in the second foot.

624. The Iambic Dimeter consists of two Iambic Dipodies:

Queruntur in | silvīs avēs, Hor. Imbrēs nivēs - | que comparat. Hor. Ast ego vicis - | sim rīserē, Hor.

NOTE 1.—Horace admits the Dactyl only in the first foot, the Tribrach only in the second, the Anapaest not at all.

NOTE 2.—Iambic Dimeter is sometimes catalectic.

625. The Iambic Tetrameter consists of four Iambic Dipodies. It belongs chiefly to comedy:

Quantum intellex- | ī modo senis || sententiam | de nuptiis. Ter.

Note.—Iambic Tetrameter is sometimes catalectic:

Quot commodas | res attuli? || quot autem ade | mi caras. Ter.

V. IONIC VERSE.

626. The Ionic Verse in Horace consists entirely of Lesser Ionics. It may be either Trimeter or Dimeter:

Neque pugno | neque segni | pede victus; Catus idem | per apertum. *Hor*.

NOTE 1.—In this verse the last syllable is not common, but is often long only by position (p. 388, foot-note 3). Thus us in victus is long before c in catus.

NOTE 2.—The Ionic Tetrameter Catalectic, also called Sotadean Verse, occurs chiefly in comedy. It consists in general of Greater Ionics, but in Martial it has a Ditrochee as the third foot:

Hās cum gemi- | nā compede | dēdicat ca- | tēnās. Mart.

VI. LOGAOEDIC VERSE.

627. Logacedic¹ Verse is a special variety of Trochaic Verse. The Irrational Trochee ∠>, the Cyclic Dactyl ∠ ∪, and the Syncopated Trochee ∟ (608, VII.) are freely admitted. It has an apparently light ictus.²

Note.—Logacedic verses show great variety of form, but a few general types will indicate the character of the whole.

628. The following Logacedic verses appear in Horace:

I. The Adonic:

II. The First Pherecratic 3 or the Aristophanic:

NOTE.—Pherecratic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tripody. It is called the First or Second Pherecratic according as its Dactyl occupies the first or the second place in the verse. In each form it may be acatalectic or catalectic:

In Logacedic verse the term basis or base, marked ×, is sometimes applied to the foot or feet which precede the Cyclic Dactyl. Thus, in the Second Pherecratic, the first foot _> is the base.

III. The SECOND GLYCONIC 3 CATALECTIC:

$$\angle > |\angle \cup |\angle \cup | \angle \wedge \text{ or }]$$
 Donec | grātus e- | ram ti- | bř. Hor .

Note 1.—Glyconic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tetrapody. It is called the First, Second, or Third Glyconic according as its Dactyl occupies the first, second, or third place in the verse. In each form it may be either acatalectic or catalectic. Note 2.—The Second Glyconic sometimes has a Syncope (608, VII.) in the third foot.

IV. The Lesser Asclepiadean 3 consists of two Catalectic Pherecratics, a Second and a First:

$$\angle > |\angle \cup \cup| \perp ||\angle \cup \cup| \angle \cup| \angle \wedge$$

Maecē- | nās ata | vīs || ēdite | rēgi- | bus. Hor.

- ¹ From λόγος, prose, and ἀοιδή, song, applied to verses which resemble prose.
- ² The free use of long syllables in the thesis causes the poetical ictus on the arsis to appear less prominent.
 - ³ Pherecratic, Glyconic, and Asclepiadean verses may be explained as Choriambic:

Pherecratic,
$$\angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid \Box \land$$

First Glyconic, $\angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \lor$
Auclepiadean, $\angle > \mid \angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \lor$

V. The Greater Asclepiadean consists of three catalectic verses, a Second Pherecratic, an Adonic, and a First Pherecratic:

Seu plu- | res hie- | mes, || seu tribu- | it || Juppiter | ulti- | mam. Hor.

VI. The Lesser Sapphic consists of a Trochaic Dipody and a First Pherecratic:

Namque | mē sil- | vā lupus | in Sa- | bīnā. Hor.

VII. The Greater Sapphic consists of two Catalectic Glyconics, a Third and a First with Syncope:

Inter | aequă- | les equi- | tat, || Gallica | nec lu- | pă- | tīs. Hor.

VIII. The LESSER ALCAIC consists of two Cyclic Dactyls and two Trochees:

$$\angle \cup \cup | \angle \cup | \angle \cup | \angle \cup$$

Purpure- | ŏ vari- | us co- | lôre. *Hor*.

IX. The Greater Alcaic consists of a Trochaic Dipody with Anacrusis and a Catalectic First Pherecratic:

Vi- : des ut | alta | stet nive | candi- | dum. Hor.

X. The Greater Archilochian¹ consists of a Dactylic Tetrameter (616) followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either Dactyls or Spondees; the fourth, a Dactyl; and the last three, Trochees:

Vitae | summa bre- | vis spem | nos vetat, || incho- | are | longam. Hor.

Note.—This verse may be explained either as Logacedic or as Compound. With the first explanation, the Dactyls are cyclic and the Spondees have irrational time; with the second explanation, the first member of the verse has the Dactyl as its characteristic foot and the second member the Trochee; see 601, note 2.

629. The following Logacedic verses not used in Horace deserve mention:

I. The Phalaecian is a Logacedic Pentapodu: 2

$$\angle > |\angle \cup |\angle \cup |\angle \cup |\angle \cup |\angle =$$

Non est | vīvere, | sed va- | lēre | vīta. *Mart*.

Tion est | vivere, | seu va- | iere | vita. M

¹ For the Lesser Archilochian, see 617, note.

² This verse differs from the Lesser Sapphic in having the Dactyl in the second foot, while the latter has the Dactyl in the third.

II. The Second Priapean consists of two Catalectic Second Glyconics with Syncope:

SECTION III.

THE VERSIFICATION OF THE PRINCIPAL LATIN POETS.

630. Vergil and Juvenal use the Dactylic Hexameter; Ovid, the Hexameter in his Metamorphoses and the Elegiac Distich in his Epistles and other works; Horace, the Hexameter in his Epistles and Satires, and a variety of metres in his Odes and Epodes.

LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

631. For convenience of reference, an outline of the lyric metres of Horace is here inserted.

Stanzas of Four Verses or Lines.

I. ALCAIC STANZA.—First and second lines, Greater Alcaics (628, IX.); third, Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis (619, 1); fourth, Lesser Alcaic (628, VIII.):

In thirty-seven Odes: I., 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II., 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV., 4, 9, 14, 15.

II. SAPPHIC STANZA.—The first three lines, Lesser Sapphics (628, VI.); the fourth, Adonic (628, I.):

In twenty-six Odes: I., 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II., 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III., 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV., 2, 6, 11; and Secular Hymn.

III. GREATER SAPPHIC STANZA.—First and third lines, First Glyconics Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (608, VII.); second and fourth lines, Greater Sapphics:

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} 1.\\ 3. \end{array}\right\}$$
 $\left\{\begin{array}{c} - \cup \\ - \cup \\ \end{array}\right\}$

$$\left\{\begin{array}{ll} 2.\\ 4. \end{array}\right\}$$

In Ode I., 8.

IV. First Asclepiadēan Glyconic Stanza.—The first three lines, Lesser Asclepiadēans (628, IV.); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (628, III.):

In nine Odes: I., 6, 15, 24, 33; II., 12; III., 10, 16; IV., 5, 12.

V. SECOND ASCLÉPIADEAN GLYCONIC STANZA.—The first two lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.); the third, Second Glyconic Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (628, III., note 2); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (628, III.):

In seven Odes: I., 5, 14, 21, 23; III., 7, 13; IV., 13.

VI. GLYCONIC ASCLEPIADĒAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Second Glyconics Catalectic (628, III.); second and fourth, Lesser Asclepiadēans (628, IV.):

$$\begin{vmatrix}
1 & \\
3 & \\
4
\end{vmatrix} - > |- \cup |- \cup | \cong \land$$

In twelve Odes: I., 3, 13, 19, 36; III., 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; IV., 1, 3.

VII. LESSER ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—Four Lesser Asclepiadeans:

In three Odes: I., 1; III., 30; IV., 8.

VIII. GREATER ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—Four Greater Asclepiadeans (628, V.):

In three Odes: I., 11, 18; IV., 10.

IX. DOUBLE ALCMANIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters (610); second and fourth, Dactylic Tetrameters (616):

$$\frac{1}{3} \cdot \left\{ -\infty |-\infty |-\infty |-\infty |-\omega |-2 \\ \frac{2}{4} \cdot \left\{ -\infty |-\omega |-2 \\ \frac{2}{4} \cdot \left\{ -\infty |-\omega |-2 \\ \frac{2}{4} \cdot \left\{ -\infty |-2 \\ \frac{2}{4} \cdot \left\{ -\infty |-2 \\ \frac{2}{4} \cdot \left\{ -\infty |-2 \\ \frac{2}{4} \cdot \left\{ -2 \right\} \right\} \right\} \right] \right\} = 0$$

In two Odes: I., 7, 28.

Note.—This stanza is formed by the union of two Alemanian stanzas; see XIX, below,

X. TROCHAIC STANZA.—First and third lines, Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic (619); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

In Ode II., 18.

XI. Dactylic Archilochian Stanza.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters; second and fourth, Catalectic Dactylic Trimeters (617, note):

$$\begin{array}{l}
1. \\
3. \\
4
\end{array} - \infty |-\infty| - \infty| - \infty| - \infty| - \omega| - \omega$$

In Ode IV., 7.

XII. Greater Archilochian Stanza.—First and third lines, Greater Archilochians (628, X.); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

In Ode I., 4.

Note.—The second and fourth lines are sometimes read with syncope, as follows:

XIVI. IONIC STANZA.—First and second lines, Ionic Dimeters (626); third and fourth, Ionic Trimeters (626):

In Ode III., 12.

Note.—This ode is variously arranged in different editions, sometimes in stanzas of three lines and sometimes of four.

Stanzas of Three Lines.

XIV. FIRST ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First line, Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter; third, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic:

1.
$$-\infty$$
 | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$

In Epode 13.

Note.—In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

XV. SECOND ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic; third, Iambic Dimeter:

In Epode 11.

Note.-In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

Stanzas of Two Lines.

XVI. IAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Iambic Dimeter;

In the first ten Epodes.

XVII. FIRST PYTHIAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter (624):

$$\frac{1. -\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-00|-9}{2. \cdot 2-0-1 \cdot 2-09}$$

In Epodes 14 and 15.

XVIII. SECOND PYTHIAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Trimeter:

1.
$$-\infty$$
 $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-2$
2. $2-0-|$ $|2-0|$

In Epode 16.

XIX. ALCMANIAN STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second. Dactylic Tetrameter:

1.
$$-\infty$$
 | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$

In Epode 12.

Not grouped into Stanzas.

XX. IAMBIC TRIMETER:

In Epode 17.

632. INDEX TO THE LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

The Roman numerals refer to articles in the preceding outline, 631.

Book I.		ODES.	METRES.	ODES. METRES.
ODES.	METRES.	4	II.	26 I.
1	VII.	5	I.	27 II.
2	II.	6	II.	28 VI.
	VI.	7	I.	29 I.
4	XII.	8	II.	30 VII.
5	_V.	9	I.	
6	IV.	10	II.	Book IV.
7	IX.	11	I.	1 VI.
8	III.	12	IV.	2 II.
9	I.	13	I.	3 VI.
10	IÎ.	14	Î.	4 Î.
	VIII.	4 5	I.	AL TYPE
**	II.	4.0		
10		16	II.	L 377
13	VI.	17	I.	7 XI.
14	V.	18	X.	8 VII.
15	IV.	19	I.	9 I.
16	I.	20	I.	10 VIII.
17	I.			11 II.
18	VIII.	Book III		12 IV.
19	VI.	1	I.	13 V.
	II.		I.	
04		2		
21	V.	3	Į.	15 I.
22	II.	4	I.	
23	V.	5	I.	EPOCES.
24	IV.	6	I.	EPOPES. METRES.
25	II.	7	V.	1 XVI.
26	I.	8	H.	2 XVI.
27	I.	9	VI.	3 XVI.
28	IX.	10	iv.	4
	I.	* *	II.	WYTTT
		10		a TITIT
30	II.	12	XIII.	6 XVI.
31	Į.	13	<u>v</u> .	7 <u>XVI</u> .
32	II.	14	II.	8 XVI.
33	IV.	15	VI.	9 XVI.
34	I.	16	IV.	10 XVI.
35	I.	17	I.	11 XV.
36	VI.	18	II.	12 XIX.
37	Î.	19	VI.	13 XIV.
0.0	II.		II.	
38	11.	0.4		
n		21	I.	15 XVII.
Book II.		22	II.	16 XVIII.
1	I.	23	I.	17 XX.
2	II.	24	VI.	
3	I.	25	VI.	SECULAR HYMN, II.

633. The metres of the following poets must be briefly mentioned:

I. CATULLUS uses chiefly (1) the Elegiac Distich (615); (2) Phalaecian

verse (629, I.); (3) Choliambus or Scazon (622, 4); (4) Iambic Trimeter (622); (5) Priapean (629, II.).

II. MARTIAL uses largely the Choliambus or Scazon and the Phalaecian verse.

Note 1.—Martial also uses Iambic and Dactylic measures.

NOTE 2.—Seneca in his choral odes imitates the lyric metres of Horace. He uses Sapphics very freely, and often combines them into systems closing with the Adonic.

NOTE 8.—Seneca also uses Anapacstic ¹ verse with Spondees and Dactyls as equivalents. This consists of one or more dipodies:

Venient annis | saecula seris.

III. Plautus and Terence use chiefly various Iambic and Trochaic metres, but they also use—

1. Bacchiac 1 Metres, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Multas' rès | simi'tū in | meō' cor- | de vor'sō. Plaut. At ta'men ubi | fidès'? sī | rogēs', nīl | pendent' hīc. Ter.

Note.—The Molossus, — — —, may take the place of the Bacchīus, as in multūs rēs, and the long syllables may be resolved, as in at tamen ubī.

2. Cretic 1 Metres, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Nam' dolī | nōn' dolī | sunt', nisi as- | tū' colās. *Plaut*. Ut' malīs | gau'deant | at'que ex in- | com'modīs. *Ter*.

Note 1.—Plautus also uses Anapaestic metres, especially Dimeters :

Quod agō' subit, ad- | secuē' sequitur. Plaut.

This measure admits Dactyls and Spondees, rarely Proceleusmatics,

Note 2.—For Trochaic and Iambic Metres in Comedy, see 620, note 2; 622, 8e Note 3.—For Special Peculiarities in the prosody of Plautus and Terence, see 576, notes 2 and 3; 578, note 2; 580, notes 2, 3, and 4.2

Note 4.—On the free use of Synaeresis in Comedy, see 608, III., note 3.

¹ See 603, note 1: 597, note 1.

² For a full account of the metres of Plautus and Terence, see editions of those poets; as the edition of Plautus by Ritschl, of a part of Plautus by Harrington, the edition of Terence by Wagner, and the edition by Crowell; also Spengel, 'Plautus: Kritik, Prosodie, Metrik.'

APPENDIX.

I. FIGURES OF SPEECH.

634. A Figure is a deviation from the ordinary form, construction, excianification of words.

Note.—Deviations from the ordinary forms are called *Figures of Etymology*; from the ordinary constructions, *Figures of Syntax*; and from the ordinary significations, *Figures of Rhetoric*.

635. The principal Figures of Etymology are-

- 1. APHAERESIS, the taking of one or more letters from the beginning of a word: 'ef for est.
- 2. Syncope, the taking of one or more letters from the middle of a word: diace for diacese.
 - 8. APOCOPE, the taking of one or more letters from the end of a word: tūn' for tūne.
- 4. EPENTHESIS, the insertion of one or more letters in a word: Alcumena for Alomena, alituum for alitum.
 - 5. METATHESIS, the transposition of letters: pistris for pristis.
 - 6. See also Figures of Prosopy, 608.

636. The principal Figures of Syntax are—

I. Ellipsis, the omission of one or more words of a sentence:

Habitābat ad Jovis (sc. templum), he dwelt near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hic illĭus arma (fuērunt), hīc currus fuit, here were her arms, here her chariot. Verg.

1. Asyndeton is an ellipsis of a conjunction: 1

Vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, I came, I saw, I conquered. Suet. See also 554, I., 6, with note 1.

2. For the Ellipsis of facio, dīcō, ōrō, see 368, 3, note 1; 523, I., note; 569, II., 3.

8. For Aposiopesis or Reticentia, see 637, XI., 3.

II. Brachylogy, a concise and abridged form of expression:

Nostrī Graecē nesciunt nec Graecī Latīnē, 2 our people do not know Greek and the Greeks (do) not (know) Latin. Cic. Nātūra hominis bēluīs antecēdit, 2 the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

1. Zeugma employs a word in two or more connections, though strictly applicable only in one:

Pācem an bellum gerēns, whether at peace or waging war. Sall. Duces pīctāsque exūre carīnās, slay the leaders and burn the painted ships. Verg.

² Here nesciunt suggests sciunt, and bēluīs in the second example is equivalent to bēluārum nātūrae.

Asyndeton is sometimes distinguished according to its use, as Adversative, Explicative, Enumerative, etc.; see Nägelsbach, 'Stilistik,' § 200.

³ Gerèns, applicable only to bellum, is here used also of pacem.

2. Syllepsis is the use of an adjective with two or more nouns, or of a verb with two or more subjects:

Pater et mater mortui sunt, father and mother are dead (439). Ter. Tu et Tullia valetis, you and Tullia are well. Cic.

III. PLEONASM is a full, redundant, or emphatic form of expression: 1

Erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus exire possent, there were two ways by which ways they might depart. Caes. Eurusque Notusque ruunt, both Eurus und Notus rush forth. Verg.

1. POLYSYNDETON is a pleonasm in the use of conjunctions, as in the last example.

2. Hendladys is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noun with an adjective or genitive:

Armis virisque for viris armātīs, with armed men. Tac.

8. Anaphora is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses:

Mê cũncta Îtalia, me ûniversa civitàs consulem declaravit, me all Italy, me the

4. EPIPHORA is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses:

Laelius nāvus erat, doctus erat, Laelius was diligent, was learned. Cic.

5. EPIZEUXIS is the emphatic repetition of a word:

Fuit, fuit quondam in hae re publica virtus, there was, there was formerly virtue in this republic. Cic.

Monosyllabic prepositions are often repeated before successive nouns, regularly so with et—et:

Et in bellieis et in civilibus officiis, both in military and in civil offices. Cic.

Note.—Other prepositions are sometimes repeated.

7. A demonstrative pronoun or adverb—id, höc, illud, sīc, ita—is often used somewhat redundantly to represent a subsequent clause. So also quid, in quid cēnsēs with a clause:

Illud të örö ut diligëns sis, I ask you (that thing) to be (that you be) diligent. Clc.

8. Pronouns are often redundant with quidem; see 450, 4, note 2.

9. Pleonasm often occurs with licet:

Ut liceat permittitur = licet, it is lawful (is permitted that it is, etc.). Cic.

10. Circumlocutions with res, genus, modus, and ratio are common.

IV. ENALLAGE is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another:

Populus lātē rēx (for rēgnāns), a people of extensive sway (ruling extensively). Verg. Sērus (sērō) in caelum redeās, may you return late to heaven. Hor. Vina cadīs (vīnīs cadōs) onerāre, to fill the flasks with wine. Verg. Cursus jūstī (jūstus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

- 1. Antimeria is the use of one part of speech for another, as in the first two examples.
- 2. HYPALLAGE is the use of one case for another, as in the last two examples.
- 8. Prolepsis or Anticipation is the application of an epithet in anticipation of the action of the verb:

Scuta latentia condunt, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg. See also 440, 2.

4. Synesis is a construction according to sense, without regard to grammatical forms. For examples, see 438, 6; 445, 5; 461.

¹ Pleonasm, a full or emphatic expression, differs widely from Tautology, which is a needless repetition of the same meaning in different words.

5. ATTRACTION unites in construction words not united in sense:

Animal quem (for quod) vocâmus hominem, the animal which we call man. Cic See also 445, 4, 8, and 9.

6. Anacol \overline{u} thon is a want of harmony in the construction of the different parts of a sentence:

Sī, ut dīcunt, omnēs Grāios esse (Grāiī sunt), if, as they say, all are Greeks. Cic.

V. Hyperbaton is a transposition of words or clauses:

Praeter arma nihil erat super (supererat), nothing remained, except their arms. Nep. Valet atque vīvit (vīvit atque valet), he is alive and well. Ter. Subeunt lūcō, fluviumque relinquunt, they enter the grove and leave the river. Verg.

- 1. Anastrophe is the transposition of words only, as in the first example.
- 2. Hysteron Proteron is a transposition of clauses, as in the last example.
- 3. Thesis is the separation of the parts of a compound word:

Nec prius respēxī quam vēnimus, nor did I look back before (sooner than) we arrived. Verg.

- 4. Chiasmus is an inverted arrangement of words in contrasted groups; see 562.
- 637. Figures of Rhetoric comprise several varieties. The following are the most important:
 - I. A SIMILE is a direct comparison:

Manus effügit imägő pär levibus ventīs volucrīque simillima somnő, the image, like the swift winds, and very like a fleeling dream, escaped my hands. Verg.

II. METAPHOR is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the appropriate name, epithet, or action of another:

Rěī půblicae vulnus (for damnum), the wound of the republic. Cic. Nau-fragium fortūnae, the wreck of fortune. Cic. Aurès vēritātī clausae sunt, his ears are closed against the truth. Cic.

- 1. Allegory is an extended metaphor, or a series of metaphors. For an example, see Horace, I., Ode 14: Ō nāvis . . . occupā portum, etc.²
- III. METONYMY is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it:

Aequo Marte (for proelio) pugnatum est, they fought in an equal contest. Liv. Furit Vulcanus (ignis), the fire rages. Verg. Proximus ardet Ūcalegon (domus Ūcalegontis), Ucalegon burns next. Verg.

Note.—By this figure the cause is often put for the effect, and the effect for the cause; the property for the possessor, the place or age for the people, the sign for the thing signified, the material for the manufactured article, etc.: Mārs for bellum, Vulcūnus for ignis, Bacchus for vīnum, nöbilitās for nōbilēs, Graecia for Graecī, laurea for vīctōria, argentum for vāsa argentea, etc.

¹ On Figurative Language, see the eighth and ninth books of Quintilian, 'De Institutione Öratöria,' and the fourth book of 'Auctor ad Herennium' in Cicero's works.

² In this beautiful allegory the poet represents the vessel of state as having been well-nigh wrecked in the storms of the civil war, but as now approaching the haven of Geace.

- 1. Autonomasia designates a person by some title or office, as èversor Kurthāqinis for Scīpič, Romānae eloquentiae princeps for Cicerč.
- IV. SYNECDOCHE is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; of the special for the general, or of the general for the special:

Statio male fida carinis (nāvibus), a station unsafe for ships. Verg.

V. IRONY is the use of a word for its opposite:

Legates bonus (for malus) imperator vester non admisit, your good com nander did not admit the ambassadors. Liv. See also 507, 3, note 1.

Note.-Metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, and irony are often called Tropes.

· VI. CLIMAX (ladder) is a steady ascent or advance in interest:

Africano industria virtutem, virtus gloriam, gloria aemulas comparavit, industry procured virtue for Africanus, virtue glory, glory rivals. Cic.

VII. Hyperbole is an exaggeration:

Ventis et fulminis öcior alis, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightning. Verg.

VIII. LITOTES denies something instead of affirming the opposite:

Non opus est = perniciosum est, it is not necessary. Cic.

IX. Personification or Prosopopela represents inanimate objects as living beings:

Cujus latus ille mucro petebat? whose side did that weapon seek? Cic.1

X. Apostrophe is an address to inanimate objects or to absent persons: Võs, Albānī tumulī, võs implorē, I implore you, ye Alban hilis. Cic.

XI. The following figures deserve brief mention:

1. Alliteration, a repetition of the same letter at the beginning of successive words:

VI victa vis est, force was conquered by force. Cic. Fortissimi viri virtus, the virtue of a most brave man. Cic.

2. Apophasis or Paraleipsis, a pretended omission: 2

Non dico te pecunias accepisse; rapinas tuas omnes omitto, I do not state that you accepted money; I omit all your acts of rapine. Cic.

3. Aposiopesis or Reticentia, an ellipsis which for rhetorical effect leaves the sentence unfinished:

Quos ego—sed motos praestat componere fluctus, whom I—but it is better to calm the troubled waves. Verg.

4. EUPHEMISM, the use of mild or agreeable language on unpleasant subjects:

Sī quid mihi humānitus accidisset, if anything common to the lot of man should befall me—i. e., if I should die. Cic.

¹ See also First Oration against Catiline, VII.: Quae têcum . . . tacita loquitur, etc.

² Sometimes called occupatio.

5. Onomatopoeia, the use of a word in imitation of a special sound:

Boves mugiunt, the cattle low. Liv. Murmurat unda, the wave murmurs

6. Oxymoron, an apparent contradiction.

Absentés adsunt et egentés abundant, the absent are present and the needy have an abundance. Cic.

7. PARONOMASIA OF AGNOMINATION, a play upon words:

Hune avium duleëdő dúcit ad āvium, the attraction of birds leads him to the pathless wood. Cic.

II. LATIN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

638. The Latin derives its name from the Latini or Latins, the ancient inhabitants of Latium in Italy. It belongs to the Indo-European or Aryan family, which embraces seven groups of tongues known as the Indian or Sanskrit, the Persian or Zend, the Greek, the Italian, the Celtic, the Slavonic, and the Teutonic or Germanic. The Latin is the leading member of the Italian group, which also embraces the Umbrian and the Oscan. All these languages have one common system of inflection, and in various respects strikingly resemble each other. They are the descendants of one common speech spoken by a single race of men untold centuries before the dawn of history.

Note 1.—In illustration of the relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English, compare the following paradigms of declension: 2

	CALICICAL	*****	
SANSKRIT. Stem. pad,	. Спек	LATIN.	English.
Nom., pād,	πούς,	pēs,	foot.
Gen. padas, Dat. pade, Acc. pādam, Abl. padas, Ins. padā, Loc. padi,	ποδός, ποδί, πόδα, ³	pedis, pedī, pedem, pede, ⁴	of a foot. to a foot. foot. from a foot. with a foot. in a foot.
	PLURA	L.	
Nom., } pādas,	. πόδες,	pedēs,	feet.
Gen. padām, Dat. padbhyas, Acc. padas, Abl. padbhyas, Jns. padbhis, Loc. patsu,	ποδῶν, ποσί, πόδας,	pedum, pedibus, pedēs, pedibus,	of feet. to feet. feet. from feet, with feet. in feet.

¹ The pun, lost in English, is in the use of avium, a remote or pathless place, with avium, of birds.

² See also p. 71, foot-note 2; p. 83, foot-note 3.

³ The Ablative, the Instrumental, and the Locative are lost in Greek, but their places are supplied by the Genitive and the Dative.

⁴ The final consonant, probably t, of the original Ablative ending is changed to s in padas and dropped in pede. The Instrumental and the Locative are lost in Latin but their places are supplied by the Ablative.

Note 2.—In these paradigms observe that the initial p in pad, $\pi o \delta$, ped, becomes f in foot, and that the final d becomes t. This change is in accordance with Grimm's Law of the Rotation of Mutes in the Germanic languages. This law is as follows:

The Primitive Mutes, which generally remain unchanged in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, are changed in passing into the Germanic languages, to which the English belongs. Thus the Sonants, d, g, in passing into English, become Surds, t, k; the Surds, c, k, p, t, become Asperates, h, wh, f (for ph), th; the Asperates, bh, 1 dh, 1 gh, 1 become Sonant; h, d, g.

NOTE 3.—The relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English may be abundantly illustrated by comparing the forms of familiar words in these different languages.³

639. The earliest specimens of Latin whose date can be determined are found in ancient inscriptions, and belong to the latter part of the fourth century before Christ or to the beginning of the third. Fragments, however, of laws, hymns, and sacred formulas, doubtless of an earlier though uncertain date, have been preserved in Cato, Livy, Cicero, and other Latin writers.

3 Compare the following:

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	English.
dvau,	δύο.	duo,	two.
trayas,	τρείς,	trēs,	three.
sat,	έξ,	sex,	six.
sapta,	έπτά,	septem,	seven.
daça,	δέκα,	decem,	ten.
dvis,	δίς,	bis,	twice.
tris,	Tpis,	ter.	thrice.
mātā,	μήτηρ,	mäter,	mother.
pitā,	πατήρ,	pater,	father.
naus,	ναῦς,	nāvis,	navy.
vāk.	ŏw.	vöx,	voice.

4 Such are the ancient forms of prayer found in Cato and other writers, the fragments of Salian hymns, of the formulas of the Fetial priests, and of ancient laws, especially of the laws of the Twelve Tables. The following inscription on the tomb of the Scipios shows some of the peculiarities of early Latin:

HONC OINO, PLOIRVME, CONSENTIONT, R
DVONORO, OPTVMO, FVICE, VIRO
LVCIOM, SCIPIONE, FILIOS, BAEBATI
CONSOL, CENSOR, AIDILIS, HIO, FVET, A
HEC, CEPIT, CORSICA, ALERIAQVE, VRBE
DEDET, TEMPESTATEBUS, AIDE, MERETO

In ordinary Latin:

Hunc ūnum plūrimī consentiunt Romāt bonorum optimum fuisse virum virorum, Lūcium Scipionem. Fīlius Barbāti consul, consor, aedīlis h^te fuit apud vos. Hīc copit Corsicam Aleriamque urbem pūgnandō; dedit tempestātibus aedem merito votam.

See Wordsworth, 'Early Latin,' Part II.; F. D. Allen, 'Early Latin'; Roby, I., p. 418.

¹ Bh generally is represented in Latin by b or f; dh by d or f, and gh by g h, or f; see Schleicher, pp. 244-251.

² For an account of Grimm's Law, with its applications, see Max Müller, 'Science of Language,' Second Series, Lecture V.; Papillon, pp. 85-91,

- 640. The history of Roman literature begins with Livius Andronicus, a writer of plays, and the earliest Roman author known to us. It embraces about eight centuries, from 250 B. C. to 550 A. D., and has been divided by Dr. Freund into three principal periods. These periods, with their principal authors, are as follows:
 - I. The Ante-Classical Period, from 250 to 81 b. c.:

Ennius, Plautus, Terence, Lucretius.

- II. The CLASSICAL PERIOD, embracing-
- 1. The Golden Age, from 81 B. C. to 14 A. D.:

Cicero, Nepos, Horace, Tibullus, Caesar, Livy, Ovid, Propertius. Sallust, Vergil, Catullus,

2. The Silver Age, from 14 to 180 A. D.:

Phaedrus, Vellēius, Tacitus, Suetonius, Lucan, Martial.

III. The Post-Classical Period, embracing-

1. The Brazen Age, from 180 to 476 A. D.:

Justin, Eutropius, Lactantius, Claudian, Victor, Macrobius, Ausonius, Terentian.

2. The Iron Age, from 476 to 550 A. D.:

Boëthius, Cassiodorus, Justinian, Priscian,

III. THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

- 641. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months.
- I. The days were not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:
 - 1. The Calends, the first of each month.
- 2. The Nones, the fifth—but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
- 3. The Ides, the thirteenth—but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
- II. From these three points the days were numbered, not forward, but backward.

Note.—Hence, after the *Ides* of each month, the days were numbered from the *Calends* of the following month.

III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the day before

each was denoted by prīdiē Kalendās, Nōnās, etc.; the second before each by diē tertiō (not secundō) ante Kalendās, etc.; the third, by diē quārtō, etc.; and so on through the month.

- 1. This peculiarity in the use of the numerals, designating the second day before the Calends, etc., as the third, and the third as the fourth, etc., arises from the fact that the Calends, etc., were themselves counted as the first. Thus pridie Kalendas, the day before the Calends; die tertio ante Kalendas, the second day before the Calends.
- 2. In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an adjective in agreement with Kalendas, Nenas, etc., as, die quarto ante Nenas Jinuarias, often shortened to quarto ante Nenas Jān., or IV. ante Nonas Jīn., or without ante, as, IV. Nonas Jān., the second of January.
- 8. Ante diem is common, instead of die—ante, as, ante diem quartum Nonās Jūn. for die quarto ante Nonās Jūn.
- 4. The expressions ante diem Kal., etc., prīdiē Kal., etc., are often used as indeclinable nouns with a preposition, as, ex ante diem V. Īdūs Oct., from the 11th of Oct. Liv. Ad prīdiē Nonās Māiās, till the 6th of May. Cic.

643. CALENDAR FOR THE YEAR.

Days of the Month.	March, May, July,			
	October.	January, August, December.	April, June, September, November.	February.
1 2 8 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 18 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 28 28 29 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20	KALENDĪS.¹ VI. Nōnās.¹ V. " IV. " VIII. Īdūs. VIII. Ādūs. VIII. " VI. " IV. "	KALENDĪS. IV. Nonās. IV. Nonās. III. Prīdiē Nonās. Nonīs. VIII. Idūs. VIII. " VI. " IV. " IV. " IV. " IV. " IV. " IV. " IVI. " VIII. " XIII. " XVIII. " XVIII. " XVIII. " XVIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIIII. " XIIII. " XIIII. " XIII. " XIII. " XIIII. " XIIII. " XIIII. "	KALENDĪS. IV. NŌnās. III. " Prīdiē Nōnās. NŌNĪS. VIII. Īdūs. VIII. " VI. " IV. " IV. " IV. " IV. " III. " IT. " III. " IT. " III	KALENDĪS. IV. Nōnās. III. Prīdiē Nōnās. Nosīs. VIII. VIII. VIII. VIII. IV. IV.
29 30 31	IV. " III. " Prīdiē Kalend.	IV. " III. " Prīdiē Kalend.	III. "Prīdiē Kalend.	(Prīd. Kal.)

¹ To the Calends, Nones, etc., the name of the month must of course be added. Before Nönäs, Īdūs, etc., ante is sometimes used and sometimes omitted (642, III., 2).

² The Calends of the following month are of course meant; the 16th of March, for instance, is XVII. Kalendās Aprīlēs.

⁸ The inclosed forms apply to leap-year.

- 644. English and Latin Dates.—The table (643) will furnish the fearner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date; but it may be convenient also to have the following rule:
- I. If the day is numbered from the Nones or Ides, subtract the number diminished by one from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall:

VIII. ante Īdūs Jān. = 13 - (8 - 1) = 13 - 7 = 6th of January.

II. If the day is numbered from the Calends of the following month, subtract the number diminished by two from the number of days in the current month:

XVIII. ante Kal. Feb. = 31 - (18 - 2) = 31 - 16 = 15th of January.

Note.—In leap-year the 24th and the 25th February are both called the sixth before the Calends of March, VI. Kul. Mart. The days before the 24th are numbered as if the month contained only 28 days, but the days after the 25th are numbered regularly for a month of 29 days: V., II. Kul. Mart., and pridio Kal. Mart.

- 645. The Roman day, from sunrise to sunset, and the night, from sunset to sunrise, were each divided at all seasons of the year into twelve hours.
- 1. The night was also divided into four watches of three Roman hours each.
- 2. The hour, being uniformly 1/12 of the day or of the night, of course varied in length with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

IV. ROMAN MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

646. The principal Roman coins were the ās, of copper; the sestertius, quinārius, dēnārius, of silver; and the aureus, of gold. Their value in the classical period may be approximately given as follows:

Ās	1 to 2	cents.
Sēstertius	5	66
Quínārius	10	66
Dēnārius	20	66
Aureus = 25 denarii	\$5.00	

1. The $\bar{a}s$, the unit of the Roman currency, contained originally a pound of copper, but it was diminished from time to time till at last it contained only $\frac{1}{24}$ of a pound.

Note.—An ās, whatever its weight, was divided into twelve unciae.

- 2. The sestertius contained originally 2½ asses, the quinārius 5, and the denārius 10; but as the ās depreciated in value, the number of asses in these coins was increased.
 - 3. The ās is also used as a general unit of measure. Thus-
 - 1) In Weight, the ās is a pound, and the āncia an ounce.
- 2) In Measure, the ās is a foot or a jūgerum (648, IV. and V.), and the wincia is 1/12 of a foot or of a jūgerum.
 - 3) In Interest, the as is the unit of interest—i. e., 1 per cent. a month

or 12 per cent. a year; the *uncia* is 1/12 per cent. a month, or 1 per cent. a year; and the *sēmis* is 9/12 per cent. a month, or 6 per cent. a year, etc.

4) In Inheritance, the ās is the whole estate, and the ūncia 1/12 of it: hērēs ex asse, heir of the whole estate; hērēs ex dodrante, heir of 9/12.

- 647. Computation of Money.—In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the *sēstertius*, also called *nummus*; but four special points deserve notice:
- I. In all sums of money, the units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by sestertii with the proper cardinals:

Quinque sëstertii, 5 sesterces; viginti sëstertii, 20 sesterces; ducenti sëstertii, 200 sesterces.

- II. One thousand sesterces are denoted by mille sistertii, or mille sistertiim.
- III. In sums less than 1,000,000 sesterces, the thousands are denoted either (1) by milia sestertium (gen. plur.), or (2) by sestertia:

Duo milia sestertium, or duo sestertia, 2,000 sesterces; quinque milia sestertium, or quinque sestertia, 5,000 sesterces.

Note.—With sēstertia the distributives are generally used, as. bīna sēstertia.

IV. In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, sestertium with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, decies, vicies, etc. Thus—

Deciës sëstertium, 1,000,000 ($10 \times 100,000$) sesterces; vīciës sëstertium, 2,000,000 ($20 \times 100,000$) sesterces.

- 1. Sestertium.—In the examples under IV., setertium is treated as a neuter noun in the singular, though originally it was probably the genitive plural of sestertius, and the full expression for 1,000,000 sesterces was Decies centena milia sestertium. Centina milia was afterward generally omitted, and finally sestertium lost its force as a genitive plural, and became a neuter noun in the singular, capable of declension.
- Sometimes sēstertium is omitted, leaving only the numeral adverb: as, decies, 1,000,000 sesterces.
- 3. The sign HS is often used for sestertii, and sometimes for sestertia, or sestertium:

 Decem HS = 10 sesterces (HS = sestertii). Dena HS = 10,000 sesterces (HS = sestertia). Decies HS = 1,000,000 sesterces (HS = sestertium).
- 648. Weights and Measures.—The following weights and measures deserve mention:
- I. The Libra, also called \bar{As} or $Pond\delta$, equal to about $11\frac{1}{2}$ ounces avoirdupois, is the basis of Roman weights.
 - 1. The Libra, like the as in money, is divided into 12 parts.
 - II. The Modius, equal to about a peek, is the basis of dry measure.
- III. The Amphora, containing a Roman cubic foot, equivalent to about seven gallons, is a convenient basis of liquid measure.
- IV. The Roman P is or Foot, equivalent to about 11.6 inches, is the basis of long measure.

Note.—Cubitus is equivalent to 11/2 Roman feet, passus to 5 and stadium to 625.

V. The Jagerum, containing 28,800 Roman square feet, equivalent to about six tenths of an acre, is the basis of square measure.

V. ROMAN NAMES.

- 649. A Roman citizen usually had three names. The first, or praenomen, designated the individual; the second, or nomen, the gens or tribe; and the third, or cognomen, the family. Thus, Publius Cornelius Scipió was Publius of the Scipió family of the Cornelian gens, and Gaius Jūlius Caesar was Gaius of the Caesar family of the Julian gens.
 - 1. The praenomen was often abbreviated:

1. The practionion wa	s often appreviated,	
A. = Aulus.	M. = Mārcus.	S. (Sex.) = Sextus.
$Ap. = \Lambda ppius.$	M'. = Manius.	Ser. = Servius.
C. = Gāius.	Mam. = Māmercus.	Sp. = Spurius.
Cn. = Gnaeus.	N. = Numerius.	T. = Titus.
D. = Decimus.	P. = Pūblius.	Ti. (Tib.) = Tiberius.
L. = Lūcius.	Q. (Qu.) = Quintus.	

- 2. Sometimes an *āgnōmen* or *surname* was added. Thus *Scipiō* received the surname *Africānus* from his victories in Africa. *Pūblius Cornelius Scipiō Africānus*.
- 3. An adopted son took (1) the full name of his adoptive father, and (2) an agnomen in anus formed from the name of his own gens. Thus Octavius when adopted by Caesar became Gaius Jülius Caesar Octavianus. Afterward the title of Augustus was conferred upon him, making his full name Gaius Jülius Caesar Octavianus Augustus.
- 4. Women were generally known by the name of their gens. Thus the daughter of Julius Caesar was simply Julia; of Tullius Cicerò, Tullia; of Cornelius Scipiò, Cornelia. Three daughters in any family of the Cornelian gens would be known as Cornelia, Cornelia Secunda or Minor, and Cornelia Tertia.

F. C. = faciendum cu-

Praef. = praefectus.

bis.

650. Various abbreviations occur in classical authors:

A. D. = ante diem.

F. = filius.

Aed. = aedīlis. rāvit. Proc. = proconsul. A. U. C. = anno urbis Id. = Īdūs Q. B. F. F. Q. S. = quodconditae. Imp. = imperator. bonum, fēlīx, faus-Cos. = consul. K. (Kal.) = Kalendae. tumque sit. Coss. = consules. Leg. = lēgātus. Quir. = Quirîtēs. $D_{\cdot} = divus$. Non. = Nonae. Resp. = rēs pūblica. D. D. = dono dedit. O. M. = optimus māx-S. = senātus.Des. = designatus. S. C. = senātūs consu imus. D. $M_{\cdot} = di\bar{i}s manibus.$ P. C. = patrês conscriptum. D. S. = dē suō. S. D. P. = salūtem dīcit D. S. P. P. = dē suā Pont. Max. = pontifex plūrimam. pecūniā posuit. māximus. S. P. Q. R. = senātus Eq. Rom. = eques Ro-P. R. = populus Rōpopulusque Romanus. mānus. mānus. Tr. Pl. = tribūnus plē

Pr. = praetor.

- VI. Vowels before two Consonants or a Double Consonant.
- 651. On the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, or a double consonant, observe—
 - I. That vowels are long before ns, nf, gn, gm, and generally before j:

conscius, consensus, consul, inscribo, insequor, instans, insula, amans, monens, regens, audiens; confero, conficio, infelix, infensus, infero; benignus, magnus, regnum, signum, agmen, segmentum, hūjus.

II. That all vowels which represent diphthongs, or are the result of contraction, are long:2

exīstimō, amāsse, audīssem, intrōrsum, intrōrsus, prōrsus, quōrsum, rūrsum, sūrsum, mālle, māllem, nōlle, nōllem, nūllus, ūllus, Mārs. Mārtis.

- III. That the long vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives-
- 1. In āscō, ēscō, and īscō in Inceptives:

gelāsco, labāsco, acēsco, ārēsco, florēsco, latēsco, patēsco, silēsco, virēsco, édormisco, obdormisco, scīsco, conscīsco.

2. In large classes of words of which the following are examples:

crās-tinus, dūc-tilis, fās-tus, ne-fās-tus, flōs-culus, jūs-tus, in-jūs-tus, jūs-tissimus, jūs-titia, mātr-imōnium, ōs-culum, ōs-culor, ōs-tium, palūs-ter, rās-trum, rōs-trum, rūs-ticus, salīc-tum.

IV. That vowels are long in the ending of the Nominative Singular of bouns and adjectives with long increments in the Genitive:

frūx, lēx, lūx, pāx, plēbs, rēx, thorāx, vox.

V. That e is long before x in the Perfect Active in exi:

rēxī, rēxit; tēxī, tēxērunt; vēxī, vēximus; dīlēxit, dīlēxērunt.

¹ It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, but the subject has of late received special attention from German orthoepists. An attempt has been made in this article to collect the most important results of these labors. The chief sources of information upon this subject are (1) ancient inscriptions, (2) Greek transcriptions of Latin words, (3) the testimony of ancient grammarians, (4) the modern languages, (5) the comic poets, and (6) etymology. See Brugmann, 'Grundriss der Vergleichenden Grammatik'; Osthoff, 'Zur Geschichte des Perfects im Indo-germanischen'; Seelmann, 'Die Aussprache des Latein'; Stolz, 'Lateinische Grammatik'; Vanicek, 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der lateinischen Sprache'; Bouterwek und Tegge, 'Die altsprachliche Orthoepie'; Bünger, 'Die lateinische Quantität in positionslangen Silben'; 'Wiggert, 'Zur lateinischen Orthoepie'; Marx, 'Die Aussprache der lateinischen Vocale in positionslangen Silben'; 'Schmitz, 'Beiträge'; Ritschl, 'Rheinisches Museum,' vol. xxxi., pp. 481–492; Schöll, 'Acta Societätis Philologae Lipsiënsis,' vol. vi., pp. 71–215; Müller, 'Orthographiae et Prosödiae Latinae Summärium'; Foerster, 'Rheinisches Museum,' xxxiii., pp. 291–299.

² Though, like other long vowels, they were probably sometimes shortened before certain consonants: duōrum, duūm, duum; nostrūrum, nostrūm, nostrum; see VII below, also 580, II.

³ Introrsum from introversum; üllus from ünulus; Mars from Mavors.

VI. That long vowels occur in the following words and in their deriva-

āctiŏ	flīctus	nūntius	röstrum
āctitō	flīxī	nūpsī	sēscentī '
āctor	forma ·	nuptiae	sēstertius
āctum	förmösus	nüptum	Sēstius
āctus	frāctus	nūtrio	structor
ānxius	frūctus	nūtrīx	strūctūra
arātrum	illüstris	ōrdior	strūctus
ārdeō	jūnctiŏ	ōrdŏ	strūxi
ātrium	jūnetus	örnämentum	sūmpsī
āxilla	jūnxī	ōrnō	sūmptus
bēstia	lēctitō	Ōstia	tāxillus
būstum	lēctor	östium	tēctor
calūmnia	lēctus	pästor	tēctus
capēssō	līctor	pāstus	trīstis
clāssis	lūctor	pāxillus	ülterior
compsi	lüctus	Pōlliŏ	ūltimus
comptus	lůxī	princeps	ūltrā
crīspus	lūstrō	prīscus	ünctiŏ
cūnetus	lüstrum	prompsi	ūnctitō
cūstōdiō	Mārcus	promptus	ūnctor
cūstōs	māxilla	propinquus	ûnctūra
dēformis	māximus	pūnctus	ūnctus
dīxī	mīlle	pūrgō	ūnxi
dūxī	mīstus	quārtus	ūstus
ēbrius	mīxtus	quinque	ūsūrpō
ēmptiŏ	nārrō	quintus	Vēstīnus
ēmptus	nāscor	rāstrum	vēxillum
facēssö	Nörba	rēctiō	vīctus
festus	nōrma	rector	vīlla
Fēstus	nōscō	rēctus	Vīpsānius
1ēstīvus	nundinae	Roscius	VĨXĪ

VII. That vowels are probably short before nt and nd: amant, amantis, monentis, prüdentis, prüdentia, amandus, regendus.

VIII. That the short vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives: inter-nus, juven-tus, liber-tas, mūnus-culum, super-bus, vir-tūs.

IX. That vowels are generally short in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with short increments in the Genitive:

adeps, calix, dux, grex, hiems, jūdex, nex, nux.

Note.—Vowels before final ns are of course excepted.

- X. That the first vowel in the following endings is short:
- 1. ernus, ernius, ernīnus; urnus, urnius, urnīnus: māternus, Līternius, Līterninus, taciturnus, Sāturnius, Sāturnius.
- 2. ustus, estus, ester, estis, esticus, estīnus, estris:
 robustus, venustus, vetustus, honestus, modestus, campester, silvester,
 agrestis, caelestis, domesticus, clandestīnus, terrestris.
- XI. That all vowels are to be treated as short unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.

INDEX OF VERBS.

This Index contains an alphabetical list, not only of all the simple verbs in common use which involve any important irregularities, but also of such compounds as seem to require special mention. In regard to compounds of prepositions (344) observe—

- 1. That the elements—preposition and verb—often appear in the compound in a changed form; see 344, 4-6.
- 2. That the stem-vowel is often changed in the Perfect and Supine; see 221.

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¹ Final ō in verbs is sometimes shortened, though rarely in the best writers.

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INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Note - The numbers refer to articles, not to pages. Acc. or accus. = accusative xdjs. = adjectives; comp. = composition; compds. = compounds; conj. = conjugation conjunc. = conjunctions; constr. = construction; f. = and the following; gen. or genit. = genitive; gend. = gender; ger. = gerund; loc. or locat. = locative; preps. = prepositions; w. = with.

It has not been thought advisable to overload this index with such separate words as may be readily referred to classes, or to general rules, or even with such exceptions as may be readily found under their respective heads. Accordingly, the numerous exceptions in Dec. III. are not inserted, as they may be best found under the respective endings, 69-115.

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